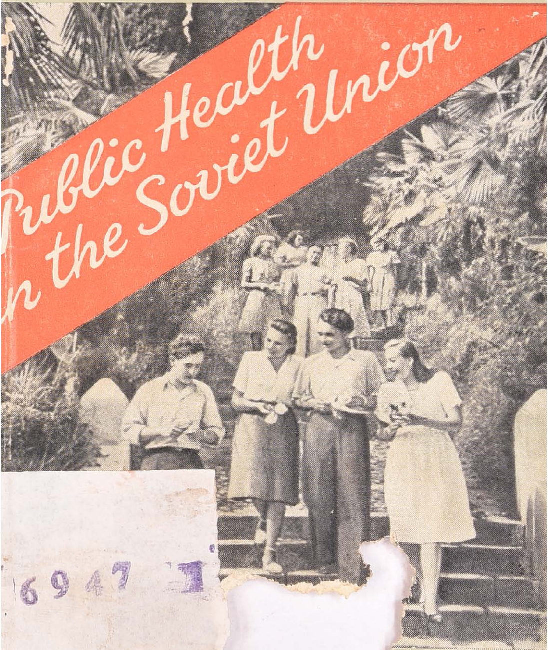
N. A. VINOGRADOV

# Public Health in the Soviet Union



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N. A. VINOGRADOV

# PUBLIC HEALTH IN THE SOVIET UNION

THE MADURA TAMIL SANGAM

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THE MADURA TAMIL SANGAM

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## HISTORY

More than thirty years have passed since the first workers' and peasants' state in the world was founded, the state in which the highest aspirations of advanced and progressive humanity are consistently being realized. Throughout these years the millions of Soviet patriots, united and inspired by the Party of Lenin and Stalin, have devoted their labour, energy and knowledge to the development of industry and agriculture, of the economy and culture of their Socialist Homeland. And in every field of the upbuilding of the state the successes achieved since the establishment of Soviet power are truly tremendous.

Moved by enthusiasm for creative achievement and inspired by the lofty ideas of building the communist society, the Soviet people have by their efforts, their self-sacrificing labour, created a mighty Socialist State. This state successfully defended its independence in the greatest of wars known to human history. It freed from the fetters of fascist slavery many peoples that had been

enthralled by the Hitlerite invaders, and it is untiringly fighting for world peace. The Soviet State confidently proceeds on the course charted by the genius of Lenin and Stalin, the great leaders of mankind.

The grand achievements in socialist construction are a source of national pride for the Soviet people; they kindle in the hearts of the millions the flame of Soviet patriotism, fortify their faith in a bright future, and give them strength to perform new feats of labour heroism for the benefit and glory of their beloved Homeland.

The power of Bolshevik policy to effect great transformations has been revealed in every sphere of the country's life, and the purposefulness and planned character of socialist economy have helped to effect a revolution not only in industry and agriculture, but also in the sphere of public health, education, social welfare and so on. It may be noted with pride that the development of the Soviet public health services does not lag behind the growth of socialist economy.

* * *

In tsarist Russia, health problems were dealt with by the zemstvos and the town administrative authorities which the tsarist government established as far back as the sixties of last century.

The zemstvos were organizations in the work of which only landlords, big capitalists, kulaks and merchants could take part; the workers and peasants were not represented in them. Zemstvos existed only in 34 gubernias of European Russia, and in these not in all uyezds. They lacked funds to organize medical care properly, and they employed an altogether inadequate number of doctors. Because of this, the overwhelming majority of the urban population had to patronize private practitioners, and the peasantry extensively resorted to the services of quacks and untrained midwives.

Various government departments and ministries also maintained medical institutions. There were also some charitable institutions rendering medical aid. But these were all bureaucratic bodies having no connection with one another and possessing negligible resources and insufficient personnel. Neither did they have a unifying centre. Tsarist legislation classed medical care as a "non-obligatory duty."

Nor did the medical profession of that time have a unifying centre. Doctors in those days had organized contact with one another only through the Pirogov congresses—so called in honour of N. I. Pirogov, the great Russian surgeon and anatomist—that were held from time to time. Although these congresses were attended

by liberal bourgeois physicians, they nevertheless played a definite part in the advancement of Russian social thought in the realm of medicine. Papers were read which drew a picture of the misery of the Russian peasants and workers, and highly interesting facts and figures were presented providing a wealth of material for the study of sanitary conditions in town and country.

The data accumulated by the zemstvos and participants in the Pirogov congresses was utilized in the initial period in building up the Soviet public health system. The zemstvos and the Pirogov organization, moreover, had many outstanding, self-sacrificing physicians who devoted their energies and knowledge to the service of the people and made surveys of the incredibly bad sanitary conditions in town and country, the incidence of disease and the death rate.

Foremost among these were N. A. Semashko, first People's Commissar of Public Health, and his deputy, Z. P. Solovyov, both eminent organizers of the Soviet public health system. They personally took an active part in the creation, along lines indicated by the Party and the Government, of that mighty public health organization unequaled anywhere else in the world which our country possesses today.

V. I. Lenin took an extraordinary interest in public health problems long before the October

Socialist Revolution, and during the period of its preparation he formulated with true genius the principles of a socialist health program.

In contrast to the timid proposals and half-hearted measures introduced by the bourgeois organizations, the zemstvos and the Pirogov congresses, Lenin and the Bolshevik Party put forward the principle of radically reorganizing the entire system of medical care, linking it up closely with the reorganization of the whole social system on socialist lines. The underlying principles were defined as consisting of comprehensive preventive medicine, healthy working and living conditions, and social insurance. The question of social insurance was specially discussed at the Prague Conference of the Party in 1912, at which it was included as a plank in the Party program.

Thus, by the time of the 1917 Revolution the Party had a quite definite program for the organization of a thoroughgoing system of medical care.

A program for the reorganization and improvement of public health protection had been outlined as far back as the Second Congress of the Party in 1903. And even during the first days of the October Revolution, when the Party was faced with urgent and extraordinarily important problems, it did not lose sight of the significance

of this question. A Medical and Hygiene Department was set up under the Military Revolutionary Committee of the Petrograd Soviet of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies. It received the first instructions of how to carry on its work directly from Lenin practically the day after the revolution.

Following Lenin's instructions and supported by the Bolshevik Party and the proletarian Red Cross, the workers' medical association, the Medical and Hygiene Department undertook the difficult but honourable task of mustering medical forces for the organization of a public medical service.

On January 24, 1918, Lenin signed a decree creating the Council of Medical Collegia, which was to be "the highest medical body of the Workers' and Peasants' Government." This decree made the Soviet Government the first government in the world to proclaim the principle of state medical care for the broad masses of the population.

The People's Commissariat of Public Health of the R.S.F.S.R. was established in July 1918; the main forms of its work, however, had taken shape gradually before that, ever since the revolution. The basis for this work was laid down explicitly in the program of the Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks):

"As the basis for its activity in the sphere of protecting the people's health," stated the Party program, "the Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks) considers primarily the implementation of extensive health-building and sanitary measures with the object of preventing the incidence of disease. Accordingly, the R.C.P.(B.) makes it its immediate task:

"1. To carry through resolutely extensive sanitary measures in the interests of the working people, such as:

"a) improvement of health conditions in populated places (protection of soil, water and air from pollution),

"b) organization of public catering on a scientific and hygienic basis,

"c) launching of measures to prevent the outbreak and spread of infectious diseases,

"d) creating a code of health legislation.

"2. To combat social diseases—tuberculosis, venereal diseases, alcoholism, etc.

"3. To make competent medical and pharmaceutical services available to all free of charge."

To reorganize the health service thoroughly, or, to be more exact, to build it up anew on a completely different foundation, it was necessary to establish a single leading body to unify the work of the local Soviets, to keep a record of personnel and equipment, to outline a national

plan for developing a network of therapeutic and preventive institutions, and to have charge of public medical service. On July 11, 1918, Lenin signed a decree establishing such a headquarters staff for public health service in the young Soviet Republic—the People's Commissariat of Public Health of the R.S.F.S.R.

The tasks that at once confronted the commissariat were exceptionally difficult: it was necessary to stamp out the widespread epidemics, to reduce the very high sick and death rate among the working people and to make medical care available to all. The situation as regards hygiene and epidemics obtaining in those days was most aptly characterized by Lenin at the Seventh Congress of Soviets, held in December 1919, in the following memorable words: "... and still a third scourge is moving upon us—the louse, typhus, which is mowing down our troops...." "Comrades, every attention must be given this problem! Either the lice will defeat Socialism, or Socialism will defeat the lice."

"Herein lies the first step in our struggle for culture, and herein lies the struggle for existence," Lenin wrote at that time.

And the young republic took that step. Under most difficult conditions, despite an acute shortage of soap and clothing, despite the extreme squalidity of populated areas, the poor function-

ing of the bathhouses and the inadequacy of the water supply, it conducted a resolute struggle to improve the sanitary and hygienic conditions of life and labour. The Council of People's Commissars issued in those years a series of decrees, submitted by the People's Commissariat of Public Health, dealing with problems of sanitation: in 1919, on keeping housing in sanitary condition; in 1920, on providing the population of the republic with bathhouses; in 1919 and 1920, on measures to combat typhus and recurrent fever; in 1921, on measures to improve the water supply, sewerage, and refuse disposal, etc. In April 1919, a decree was issued making vaccination compulsory. The effect of this decree can hardly be overestimated. Suffice it to point out that after a thorough vaccination campaign in Petrograd in 1920, the number of new smallpox cases dropped to between six and eight a month from the 800 registered monthly before the issuance of the decree.

The bath, laundry and disinfection units and trains which the People's Commissariat of Public Health sponsored in the Soviet Army accomplished a great deal. Health education was conducted extensively. In 1920, 3,800,000 Soviet Army men attended lectures and talks on hygiene, and in 1919 and 1920, 5,500,000 hygiene posters, booklets and leaflets were published for distribution

in the army alone. Similar activity was conducted also among the civilian population.

Despite the exceedingly difficult conditions which obtained at the time—starvation, devastation, sabotage and intervention—the newly established public health bodies coped successfully with their complicated tasks. The first test given them by history was passed. The principles of a state public health system became established in the course of this grim and tense struggle.

After emerging victorious from the cruel battles with the forces of the Whiteguard counterrevolutionaries and foreign interventionists, the Soviet government set about the rehabilitation of the ruined national economy and the establishment of institutions and organizations to protect the health of the working people.

Already during the first ten years of Soviet government the number of medical and sanitary organizations grew and their services improved. In 1913, pre-revolutionary Russia had a total of 175,690 hospital beds. By 1928, however, despite the considerable reduction in hospital facilities caused by the war of 1914-18, the country's hospitals had 246,525 beds.

Particularly significant was the increase of the number of therapeutic and prophylactic institutions. Whereas in 1913 there were only 1,230 dispensaries and polyclinics, in 1928 there were

5,673. During the same period, the number of rural medical circuits practically doubled, increasing from 4,367 to 7,531. Such a rapid development of the medical network naturally required thousands of additional physicians, feldshers, midwives and nurses. In 1928, the working people were served by 63,162 physicians, against a total of only 19,785 in the entire country in 1913.

After the Seventh Congress of Soviets the Soviet Government and the Central Committee of the Party time and again gave consideration to the principal problems of public health. On December 18, 1929, the Central Committee of the Party passed a truly historic decision, "On Medical Care of the Workers and Peasants." The Central Committee noted that the standard of health protection attained did not meet the higher requirements of the national economy, that the medical institutions did not adhere to the principle of serving the various groups of working people in accordance with the part they played in advancing the national welfare and the country's economy. The task was set considerably to improve the medical care of industrial workers, in the first instance, to carry through a number of effective health measures in the Donbas, Kuzbas and the Urals, and to make medical care in the countryside commensurate with the rate and

to mothers, granting state aid to mothers of large families, expanding the network of maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens, instituting heavier penalties for failure to pay alimony, and introducing certain changes in divorce legislation. This was an enactment of the greatest state importance offering striking proof of the Soviet Government's solicitude for mothers. During that year, 200,000,000 rubles was paid out in grants to mothers of large families. The following year the sum increased to 965,712,000 rubles and in 1941 to 1,131,955,000 rubles.

It is hardly necessary to stress that we have far outstripped in this respect even the most advanced capitalist countries—Great Britain, France and the United States. In these countries, sickness, or the birth of a child, is a crushing burden on the worker's family. For an illustration we may refer to President Truman's 1945 message to Congress in which he admitted that the state of the nation's health was unsatisfactory. One might have expected that after such an admission by the head of the government, certain practical measures would be taken to improve the state of medical care. However, the report of Oscar R. Ewing, Administrator of the United States Federal Security Agency, published in 1948, shows that 25,000,000 persons in the United States, or one-sixth of the population, were suffering from

chronic ailments, 200,000 children were afflicted with epilepsy, 175,000 with tuberculosis, and 500,000 were in need of surgical or orthopaedic treatment. Rickets was widespread too.

Four years have passed since the message referred to was submitted by President Truman to Congress. But in his recent message to the 81st Congress Truman again says that "in a nation as rich as ours, it is a shocking fact that tens of millions lack adequate medical care. We are short of doctors, hospitals and nurses.... Proper medical care is so expensive that it is out of reach of the great majority of our citizens."

In the Soviet Union, protection of the health of the population is a duty of the state, and the Soviet citizen enjoys the right to medical care.

On December 5, 1936, the Extraordinary Eighth Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. adopted the Stalin Constitution, the constitution of victorious Socialism. The fundamental law of the Soviet State secured to each of its citizens the sacred right to work, to rest and leisure and to education.

The same year the People's Commissariat of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. was formed to take charge of the medical and sanitary services at the disposal of the working people throughout the Soviet Union.

The Eighteenth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, which took place in 1939, defined the new tasks of the country's medical system as follows: "To intensify efforts considerably in the sphere of protecting the health of the working people, in improving hospital service, in extending sanitary and preventive measures, in rendering maternity aid and increasing the number of children's hospitals, in raising the standard of labour protection, and in organizing rest and recreation and physical culture for workers; this in view, state expenditures on health protection are to be increased from 10,300 million rubles in 1937 to 16,500 million in 1942." Thus, the attention of public health workers was directed primarily to the improvement of medical treatment and prophylaxis, to a further reduction in the incidence of disease and the death rate, and a bettering of all sanitary and hygienic indices which characterize the state of health of the population.

The steady implementation of the instructions of the Eighteenth Congress of the C.P.S.U.(B.) yielded exceptionally good results already in the years immediately following the congress. Typhus, for instance, which at the beginning of the revolution threatened the very existence of the young republic and took a toll of thousands of lives, became a rare disease, encountered only in

isolated cases occurring here and there in certain districts. The dread plague, cholera and smallpox disappeared entirely.

Years of tireless effort by the country's steadily-growing army of medical workers, the colossal increase in material expenditures on public health service and all-round aid rendered by the state, strict observance of sanitary and hygiene regulations at industrial enterprises and in agriculture, growth of the material well-being and the general culture of the population—all this facilitated a further improvement in the nation's health and a sharp reduction in the disease rate.

On the eve of the Patriotic War, the average annual growth of population in the R.S.F.S.R. over the 1926 figure was double the population increase on the American continent and in Europe.

Since the inauguration of the great Stalin five-year plans, signal progress has been registered in the physical development of our country's population.

"It is enough to state," V. M. Molotov declared in his report to the Seventh Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R., held in 1935, "that the medical records covering workers called up for army service in Moscow and Leningrad and in Moscow and Ivanovo regions, Gorky Territory and the Ukraine, show that during the past six or seven

years, the average weight of those examined has increased by $1^1/_2$ to 2 kilograms and their chest measurement by $1^1/_2$ to $2^1/_2$ centimetres. We should like to see what foreign country can duplicate this record."

We can cite pertinent data on "prosperous" America, as an example. On April 1, 1945, nearly 5 million male registrants between the ages of 18 and 37, according to medical records, had been examined and classified as unfit for military service. The number of those rejected was about 30 per cent of all those examined . . . a million and a half had to be discharged from the Army and Navy for physical or mental disability. The contrast is striking indeed!

* * *

The new, immense tasks in preventive medicine with which the Soviet Land was faced could not be solved by individual doctors specializing in hygiene. A special, powerful organization was required to do this job. And so a wide network of bacteriological and sanitary and hygiene laboratories, pasteurization and disinfection stations, and vaccination and disinfection units was built up gradually. A beginning was made in sanitary legislation.

Improvement of cities and villages, sanitary inspection of homes and sources of water supply

as well as of establishments engaged in the production or sale of food products, quarantine of cases of infectious diseases, disinfection, vaccination and a study of epidemicity—these were the tasks the health bodies were occupied with. With the development of industry it became necessary to institute special sanitary inspection in industry.

As the cities grew and the country was being industrialized and its agriculture collectivized, new problems, one more complex than the other, confronted the health organization. It became urgent rapidly to increase the number of health officers as well as to facilitate their further specialization.

The year 1933 was a turning point in the development of this branch of the health service. The State Sanitary Inspection Service was established that year.

The Eighteenth All-Union Conference of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, which met in 1941, stressed the importance of putting sanitary work on a proper footing in industrial plants, the transportation system, kolkhozes and sovkhozes. This gave rise to a new form of a mass movement for a high standard in sanitation. A remarkable example of popular enterprise was furnished by the population of Geokchai District in the Azerbaijan S.S.R., whose initiative started a truly popular movement which the residents of

Dmitrov (Moscow Region) and Rogachov (Byelorussia) were quick to join as pioneers.

The kolkhoz peasants of Geokchai District painted all the houses, put the yards, streets and wells into excellent order, built new lavatories and bathhouses, and took effective measures to combat malaria. They did all this in a brief space of time and without outside help, using local materials exclusively. The people of Rogachov succeeded in eradicating transmissible diseases in their district, so much so that the infectious diseases ward in the local hospital was closed because of lack of patients.

This initiative of the masses was greatly stimulated by the health education conducted by medical workers in medical institutions, schools, rural reading rooms and workers' clubs, as well as over the radio and through the press.

* * *

The widest use is made of the achievements of medical science to protect the health of the people in the Soviet Union. During the very first years of Soviet government, when the Civil War was still on, the microbiological, sanitation and hygiene, tuberculosis, tropical and venerealogical institutes were established. The principal task of these and many other scientific research institu-

tions founded after the revolution is to study the causes of disease and to work out new methods of diagnosis and treatment. The first institutes for the study of fundamental theoretical problems of medicine and biology were founded at the same time.

After the Civil War, when the country turned to peaceful construction and rehabilitation of the national economy, institutes were established to deal with problems of industrial hygiene and labour protection, public catering, occupational disease, community hygiene, mother and child care, etc. On the initiative of Comrades J. V. Stalin, V. M. Molotov, K. Y. Voroshilov and A. M. Gorky the huge Institute of Experimental Medicine was founded.

New medical institutes and scientific research institutions were established also in various regions and territories of the U.S.S.R. for the study of problems of pathology and epidemiology and for investigating local health resort facilities and medical preparations.

The Soviet State assigns huge funds for scientific research. As our great physiologist I. P. Pavlov said, it endows science "generously, too generously." And our scientists have justified the solicitude shown for them by the Soviet State.

Among the outstanding men of medical science in our country who have won for it world re-

nown and recognition are I. P. Pavlov, N. N. Burdenko, N. N. Anichkov, L. A. Orbeli, A. I. Abrikosov, A. A. Bogomolets, N. A. Semashko, Z. P. Solovyov, A. D. Speransky, V. P. Filatov and Y. N. Pavlovsky, to mention only a few.

During the Great Patriotic War, when the level of medical services to the working people and the heroic Soviet Army had to be raised higher than ever, and deep-going combined effort among institutes and scientists of the most diverse specialties was required to solve many complex problems, the Soviet State founded the Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R., which stands in the van of Soviet medical science.

Research has been developed even more extensively after the war. At the present time there are 400 medical institutes and scientific research institutions in the Soviet Union. In 1948, 25,000 scientific researchers staffed these institutions; of these 3,380 were Doctors of Science, and 8,139 Candidates of Science. Scores of scientists in the field of medicine have been awarded the Stalin Prize, the country's highest award in science. Suffice it to say that during the past five years 59 members and scientific workers of the Academy of Medical Sciences alone have been honoured with Stalin Prize awards.

Consistent application of the Lenin-Stalin national policy has ensured the rapid development

N. N. Anichkov, President of the Academy of Medical Sciences, Stalin Prize Winner, Lieutenant General of the Soviet Army Medical Service

of medical science in all parts of the U.S.S.R. The Kirghiz S.S.R., for instance, has its own system of institutions in medical sciences, and the staffs of these include 14 Doctors of Medical Sciences and 55 Candidates of Medical Sciences. In the Uzbek S.S.R. the figures are 65 and 253, respectively. If we bear in mind that before the Great October Socialist Revolution the population in these parts of the country was completely illiterate, it will become clear what a high cultural standard has been reached under the Soviet system by the peoples of the former frontier areas of Russia.

A further feature of Soviet medical science is that it serves the interests of socialist upbuilding, that its development is a component part of our country's great master plan of construction.

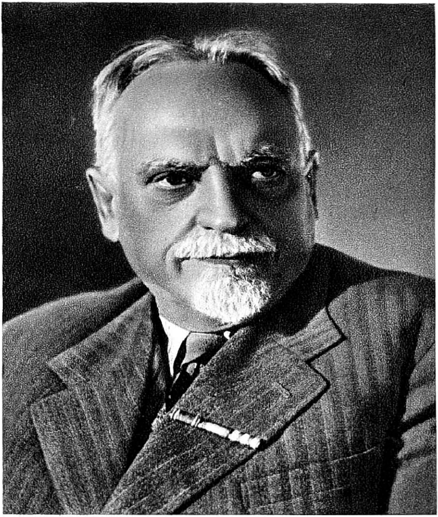
The Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. has worked out an integrated five-year plan of scientific research covering the more important problems confronting medicine, such as those of cancer, hypertonia, and many others.

Underlying this plan, as is the case in scientific research generally in the Soviet Union, is the principle of combined effort, i.e., the coordination of the work of the many institutions and scientists engaged in elucidating one and the same problem but from different angles. Such a concerted approach is possible only where scientific work is planned.

Soviet medical science wholeheartedly serves the people. The Soviet scientists in the field of medicine are directly engaged in solving both theoretical and practical health problems. The facilities for creative work at their disposal are boundless, and the state furnishes them everything they need to consummate their scientific researches successfully.

Soviet medical scientists devote a good deal of attention to the history of Russian medicine. They have shown what an outstanding role has been played by Russian scientists in the various fields of medical science. For instance, it was considered hitherto that the discovery of vitamins was made by scientists abroad. Soviet scientists, however, have shown that the credit is actually due to N. I. Lunin, a Russian researcher, who, in his dissertation *On the Importance of Inorganic Salts in the Diet of Animals*, published as far back as 1880 in Yuryev, was the first to establish that mice die "when fed only protein, fats, sugar, salt and water," and that to sustain life animals require other substances, which were later called vitamins.

Professor L. V. Sobolev, of the Military Medical Academy in St. Petersburg, played an outstanding part in solving the problem of diabetes. In his work *On the Structure of the Pancreas Under Certain Pathological Conditions*, published



N. A. Semashko, member of the Academy of Medical Sciences, Honoured Worker of Science

in 1900 in Russian and German, he showed that the function of the islands of Langerhans in the pancreas was "to regulate the metabolism of carbohydrates in the organism; when these islands are destroyed this function is lost and a pathological condition, diabetes mellitus, sets in."

Twenty-two years later Dr. Banting's researches essentially confirmed Sobolev's findings.

Erythema scarlatiniform was first recognized as a separate disease in 1885 by Dr. N. F. Filatov, founder of Russian pediatrics. The British Dr. Dikes described it considerably later. In 1887, Filatov discovered a very important early symptom for diagnosing measles—bluish-white specks on a red base seen on the buccal mucous membrane. It was a year later that this symptom was described by Koplik.

The father of modern virusology is the Russian scientist Ivanovsky, who discovered mosaic disease in tobacco in 1892.

The examples given here clearly prove that the creative minds of talented Russian scientists have laboured untiringly to solve highly important medical problems for the benefit of mankind.

Russian medical science occupies a place of honour in world science. Among scientists who have earned universal recognition are N. I. Pirogov, I. I. Mechnikov, I. M. Sechenov, S. P. Bot-

kin, N. P. Kravkov, G. N. Gabrichevsky, S. N. Vinogradsky, and many others.

Instead of helping the country's scientists, however, the tsarist government placed all kinds of obstacles in their way. It was not interested in developing Russian science.

All these obstacles disappeared when the Soviet system was established. For more than three decades now the energetic activity of the country's medical profession, which enjoys the widest all-round support of the Government, the Party and of the entire Soviet people, has yielded rich results.

Thanks to the tremendous achievements in socialist construction in all spheres of industry, agriculture, culture, science and art, conditions have been created in our country that, as Stalin has said, enable us "to rear a new generation of workers, healthy and joyous, capable of raising the might of the Soviet Land to due heights and defending it staunchly against encroachments on the part of enemies."

Our successes are due to the wise and far-sighted Stalin policy, which rests on the doctrine produced by the genius of Marx, Engels and Lenin; they are due to the fact that all Soviet people are, without sparing their strength, building a new life based on the principles of the great Stalin Constitution.

## THE MAIN FEATURES OF THE SOVIET PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

Before dealing with the actual achievements of the Soviet public health system and its organization, it is necessary to describe some of its features to which it owes these achievements and which distinguish it from medical care in capitalist countries.

Our great leader J. V. Stalin has said that "of all valuable capital existing in the world the most valuable and most decisive capital is people, cadres." These words of Comrade Stalin reflect the attitude of the Party and of the Soviet State to the working people of the Land of Victorious Socialism.

The Stalin solicitude for man is particularly vividly manifest in the measures introduced by the Party and the Government to protect the health of the working people.

The public health system established by the Soviet State has nothing in common with those in operation in the capitalist countries. The dif-

ference lies not only in the number of physicians, hospitals, polyclinics and other institutions available for the treatment and prevention of disease, but also in the fundamental dissimilarity of the principles governing their state systems.

The bourgeois press in America frequently boasts of the number of doctors and hospitals the United States has at the present time. We have seen, however, how little they have benefited the state of that nation's health. As a matter of fact the work of the medical authorities has been severely criticized in recent years in the United States itself.

American physicians—for example, Dr. Bauer—have themselves expressed the opinion that the crux of the matter here is not the medical care available but economics. It is the difference in the social systems that is the main reason why our public health bodies are working so much more effectively than those in the capitalist countries.

In the capitalist countries the very social system shortens human life; it is conducive to sickness, and even the best intentions of the most conscientious physicians come to naught in face of it.

In our socialist country, however, the whole social system facilitates the work of the public health bodies. The absence of unemployment, the

Soviet laws on the protection of labour, mother and child care, the right to rest and leisure accorded under the Stalin Constitution, the tremendous improvement in the well-being of the people, the direct participation of the working people in the administration of the state, the complete identity of the interests of the state and those of the working people, and the abolition of the exploitation of man by man—all this constitutes the basis upon which the work of the public health bodies in our country proceeds. It is the socialist system with all its accomplishments, with its constructive enthusiasm and its purposefulness, and the selfless love for the Homeland so characteristic of Soviet people that has been the basic factor making for the rapid improvement in the health of our country's working people.

Soviet medical care is based on principles that are implicit in all of our Party's precepts and that are linked with the basic tenets of its program.

What, then, are the basic principles that have enabled us to achieve such unusual results in so brief a historical period?

Article 120 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. reads: "Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or disability.

"This right is ensured by the extensive development of social insurance of factory and office

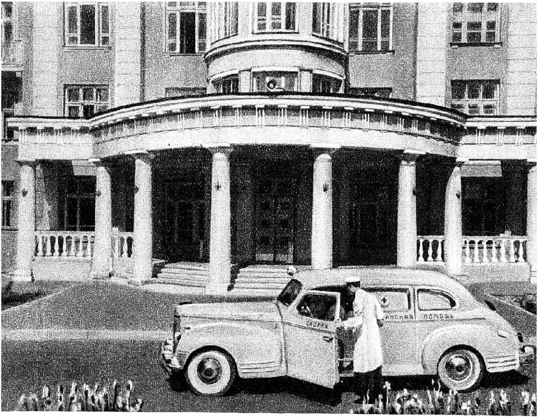
workers at state expense, free medical service for the working people and the provision of a wide network of health resorts for the use of the working people."

These significant words inscribed in the Constitution define one of the basic principles of the Soviet public health system.

Protection of the health of the population of the U.S.S.R. is *a state function, a duty of the state.*

No capitalist state applies this principle. In many countries there is a special category of physicians known as "doctors of the poor." But medical service based on charity is humiliating to the patient, besides being altogether inadequate.

The principle—first proclaimed and implemented by the Soviet State—that public health protection is a duty of the state has been made the basis for the organization of medical services in the People's Democracies—Bulgaria, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, Hungary and Albania. For instance, Article 66 of the new Bulgarian Constitution adopted by the Grand National Assembly of Bulgaria states: "The state looks after the people's health, organizes and directs the necessary services and institutes, conducts health education among the people, and pays special attention to the physical education of the youth."



Clinical hospital of the Ministry of Railways, Moscow

An ambulance plane takes a patient on board

Thus the state has assumed responsibility for protecting the health of the working people and their families and taken over the production of medicaments and their supply to the population. The pharmaceutical industry is expanding and a large number of pharmacies are operating efficiently.

Care of mother and child is a constant concern of the Bulgarian Government. The country's maternity homes have increased sixteenfold, and the number of prenatal and postnatal consultation centres has doubled. Nurseries have been established in almost all industrial centres, and seasonal crèches are being opened in rural areas. A sizable network of specialized children's medical institutions and a great number of children's wards in general hospitals have been opened.

A great deal has been done to make health resorts widely available to the working people. One hundred and forty-two rest homes have been built and 155 are under construction. In 1948, 180,000 persons took rest cures or treatment at rest homes and sanatoriums. In 1949, accommodations were to be available to 300,000. Whereas in 1948 the appropriation for free treatment and rest cures was 250,000,000 leva, the allotment for 1949 was 350,000,000.

To meet the growing need for personnel a new medical department at a university and

several secondary medical schools have been opened.

The progress of the state public health service in democratic Poland is equally considerable.

Poland, which is on the upgrade in all fields of endeavour, fulfilled its three-year plan for the development of the national economy (1947-49) ahead of time. Measures for developing the cultural and medical services for the working people occupied an important place in this plan.

In 1949 allocations for the restoration and repair of sanatoriums alone were about 150,000,000 zlotys, and the number of people who took rest cures or treatment that year was 500,000, or double the 1947 figure. The network of general and specialized medical establishments and institutions for mother and child care is being expanded considerably. The Six-Year Plan (1950-55) provides for increasing the number of hospital beds by 15,000, sanatorium accommodations by 3,000, and the number of health stations from 600 to 2,100.

The progress made by the public health system of democratic Hungary is also striking. The amount of 328,700,000 forints provided in the Three-Year Plan (1947-49) for the public health services is as much as previously was spent in 12 years. In 1949, there were already 773 dispensaries in rural areas, and medical aid was

available at 300 plants. The number of hospital beds was to reach 54,900 by the end of 1949.

A considerable expansion of the state public health services is also taking place in Eastern Germany, where the German Democratic Republic was established recently. This growth is particularly noteworthy in comparison with the state of medical service in Western Germany, among whose 1,300,000 unemployed there are a good many doctors. Of Western Germany's 17,000 young doctors only 8,000 have full-time paid positions. Of the rest, 7,000 work in hospitals without remuneration and 2,000 have no regular work at all. The pay of those who have positions is niggardly. Because of unemployment among doctors the universities in Western Germany plan to reduce sharply the enrolment in medical faculties.

The sick benefit funds existing in Bizonia are a travesty of social insurance. The so-called free medical service there costs the working people a pretty penny.

The picture in the German Democratic Republic is quite different. In the first place there is no unemployment there. Then, social insurance for the working people has been realized in practice, and appropriations for the health service are increasing from year to year. The amount expended on free medical care in Eastern

Germany in 1948 was 232,000,000 marks. In 1949 it was 290,000,000 marks.

In 1948 alone more than 1,600 polyclinics and sanitary stations were opened. Villas and castles of the wealthy have been converted into sanatoriums. The number of doctors is constantly growing, as the doors of the medical faculties are wide open to those who want to take up this profession and the graduates are not faced with the spectre of unemployment.

The right of citizens to health protection and free medical service is one of the vital demands of the masses in the capitalist countries, and under pressure from the working people, their governments are sometimes compelled to proclaim this right, although they endeavour in every way to limit and distort it in practice.

In Great Britain, for instance, a new health service law was passed in November 1946. Although it loudly proclaims that the state takes upon itself the organization of the health services and that all citizens are entitled to free medical aid, the law contains so many reservations that this aid is reduced to next to nothing. It should also be mentioned that the quality of this service is made dependent on the patient's means. The fact remains, however, that the Labour Government, which pursues a reactionary foreign and domestic policy, has had to recognize, at

least on paper, the right of citizens to free medical care, even if in practice the health service law amounts to the most shameless deception of the working people.

In the U.S.S.R. *all medical care is free and available to all*, regardless of the patient's resources.

In other words, every sick person is entitled to every kind of existing medical service, free of charge.

In all capitalist countries medical aid has to be paid for. If the sick have no money, they have to do without it, for 90 per cent of the physicians in those countries practise privately.

In times of crises and unemployment sickness is most widespread, and yet it is in such times that people have no money to pay doctors' fees. The result is that physicians have no patients, and the sick get no treatment. Professor Tandler of Vienna has said that under existing economic conditions (i.e., under the capitalist system), a physician seemingly practises one of the liberal professions. Actually, however, he is a shopkeeper, a small proprietor who trades in the health of those who seek his advice. To all intents and purposes, by virtue of purely material interests, Tandler declares, the physician is an enemy of his patients' health.

In the Soviet Land health protection is a duty of the state, and every Soviet citizen is entitled to medical service.

The development of health protection in our country proceeds *according to plan* and is closely linked with the development of the whole of the national economy.

The rapid development of the public health service in our country according to plan has been facilitated by the fact that the entire problem of medical care was concentrated from the outset in the hands of one body—the People's Commissariat of Public Health, now the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R.

The Soviet State has set itself the aim not merely to cure disease but *to prevent* it; the state is out to combat disease by creating such living and working conditions as would make the occurrence of illnesses impossible. Here we see that preventive trend in Soviet medicine which was formulated by the genius of Lenin and was embodied in the program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks).

Comprehensive legislation on labour protection, improvement of towns and rural localities, organization of catering and of the food industry, and provision of wide opportunities for rest and recreation to the working people are measures

that check the spread of disease and prevent its development.

In capitalist countries such an approach to the problem is impossible, for it would inevitably affect the interests of the owners of factories and other enterprises, houses and land. Because of this preventive measures to combat disease in those countries are extremely limited in scope. Only a socialist state can take every measure necessary for providing healthful working and living conditions and combating disease.

The preventive trend in all of the activity of the public health bodies in the Soviet Union is reflected in the various health measures introduced in town and country, as well as in the legislative acts of the central government and the local authorities.

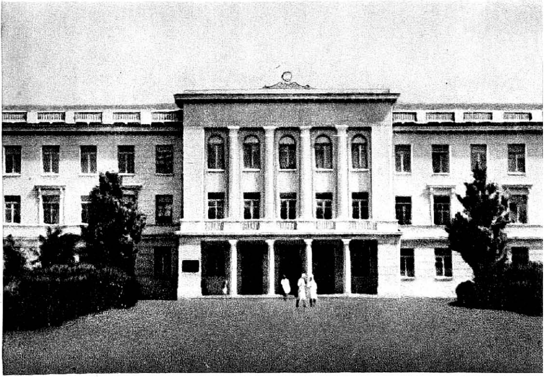
In capitalist countries, prophylaxis is divorced from curative treatment. Treatment of patients is done by private practitioners, and these are not at all interested in preventive measures, since this would result in fewer cases of illness. Blocked by private interests, the disease prevention activities of the governmental health authorities in these countries are conducted on an insignificant scale.

The *social insurance system* set up in the Soviet Union is the most comprehensive in the world. Through it the state provides medical care to the sick and at the same times secures them

their wages during sickness. Under our legislation, social insurance covers all factory and office workers, all wage and salary earners. The insured are paid benefits in all cases of disability, whether sickness, injury, pregnancy and confinement, permanent disability, and so on.

Social insurance exists also in Britain, France, Switzerland, Belgium and other capitalist countries. But in these countries, firstly, it does not cover all wage and salaried workers, and, secondly, the working people themselves have to pay not less than half of the contributions, and sometimes more. In Great Britain, for instance, according to the social insurance act of 1911, the owner of an enterprise paid three pence per week for every insured worker, while the latter paid four pence. In France, the employer and worker pay equal amounts. There is no capitalist country where the workers do not have to make any contribution at all. In all these countries, moreover, the insured are rendered the most elementary and cheapest medical aid. The workers have to pay from their own pockets for expensive medicines or expensive treatment, and members of their families usually are not entitled to any medical care free of charge.

In Britain the widely-advertised National Health Service Act, passed in 1948, is now in force. In the main the act provided for the reorgan-



Filatov Institute of Ophthalmology, Odessa

High-frequency electrotherapy room at Polyclinic No. 72
Kolomenskoye, Moscow Region

ization of the public health system and the transfer of the hospitals and medical service to the state. This law brought the health budget for 1948 to 152,000,000 pounds sterling, or 56,000,000 pounds sterling more than before. Actually, however, the supplementary appropriation amounted to 24,000,000 pounds, for the amount of 56,000,000 pounds included the 32,000,000 previously assigned to the Ministry of Labour for social insurance.

This law is merely an attempt to create the illusion among the British people that the government is concerned with the welfare of the working people. No one gave this away more completely than Sir Stafford Cripps, Chancellor of the Exchequer, when he appealed to the British people to make moderate use of the right to medical care, threatening increased taxes as an alternative.

It is now possible to gauge somewhat the effect of the new law. In replies to a questionnaire circulated by the London *Daily Worker*, doctors indicated that hospital service in Great Britain was in a catastrophic condition. There are not enough hospitals even for emergency cases. One doctor stated that he was unable to find accommodation in a hospital for a child suffering from acute appendicitis and in urgent need of an operation. Another was unable to find room for a

child pneumonia patient. Emergency Aid Service advised him that they had 70 pneumonia cases on their hospital waiting list.

Although England has a shortage of beds in hospitals, London alone has some 10,000 idle beds because of a lack of intermediate and junior medical personnel. The pay of these categories is so low that people cannot be found to take those jobs.

In the Soviet Union, on the contrary, all citizens are ensured every form of medical aid, including hospitalization, regardless of whether they are covered by social insurance or not.

The Soviet State is concerned not only with providing treatment to the sick but also with constantly enhancing the vigour and health of the working people. It provides for their rest and recreation by affording them annual vacations and making accommodations at rest homes and sanatoriums available to them, and so on.

*Mother and child care* is one of the basic aspects of Soviet health protection.

In the overwhelming majority of capitalist countries women do not enjoy equal rights with men, and they are paid less for their labour than men. This is the case in France and Great Britain, for instance. Want often drives women to prostitution, which is the principal cause of the spread of venereal disease.

In the Soviet Union women enjoy equal rights with men in every sphere of life. Soviet women occupy a prominent place in the organs of state power, in socialist industry and agriculture, in science and in art. Two hundred and thirty-seven women have been awarded the Stalin Prize, which is the highest scientific award in the Soviet Union. Among the 25,000 scientists in the field of medicine, more than 10,000 are women. A million women are engaged in the public health service, and of them over 100,000 are doctors.

Strikingly convincing evidence of the Soviet Government's constantly growing care for mother and child are the ever-growing appropriations for maintaining the numerous maternity homes, women's and children's consultation centres, and sanatoriums and rest homes for expectant mothers. This important aspect of Soviet public health service is dealt with at length in a special chapter.

In our country public health work is not a matter concerning medical personnel alone. The working people at large have been drawn into this activity.

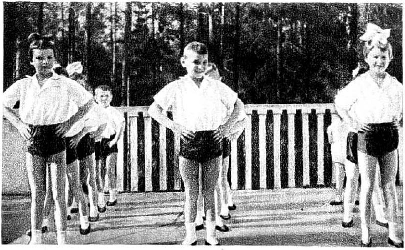
The Soviet public health system has always had the active support of the working people who participate in all health improvement activity. During the years of civil war, foreign intervention and blockade, a highly important part in elimi-

nating the epidemics of typhus, cholera and smallpox which raged at the time was played by the public commissions to promote cleanliness and the sanitary committees of three, which drew the working people into the campaign to combat epidemic diseases. Delegate meetings of working and peasant women laid the foundation for mother and child care. Public commissions set up to assist polyclinics and hospitals, public sanitary inspection bodies, local organizations of the Red Cross and Red Crescent societies, and a large number of volunteer health campaigners today too help the public health bodies to make working and living conditions more conducive to health and to improve the sanitary condition of cities and villages.

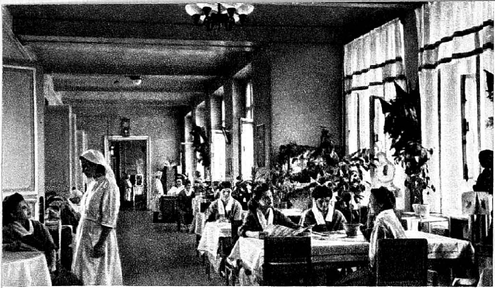
The health education conducted in the Soviet Union helps to stimulate the working people to act on their own initiative in this sphere.

In capitalist countries, health education does not get beyond the stage of well-meant advice and pious wishes, since the working people there are in no position to carry out the necessary measures. Sanitary propaganda is frequently conducted by big private concerns manufacturing sickroom accessories and hygiene appliances to promote the sale of their wares. The population does not take any active part in the work of the public health bodies.

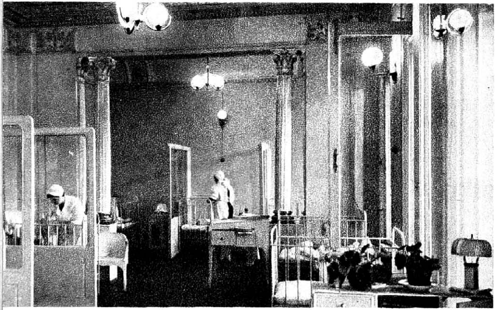
Children's Clinical Sanatorium in Malakhovka, Moscow Region



The day begins with physical exercises at the Children's Clinical Sanatorium in Malakhovka



Hospital No. 2, Orekhovo-Zuyevo. A glimpse of the reading room for convalescents in the women's department



Dysentery ward at the children's hospital, Frunze District, Moscow

In our country, in contrast to capitalist countries, special attention is paid to the improvement and strengthening of public health services in the national regions and republics. Thanks to the wise Stalin policy, all nationalities have gained a new lease on life and are creating their own culture and taking an active part in socialist construction.

The policy of colonial oppression pursued in the capitalist world makes for a sharp distinction between the medical care rendered the population of the imperialist countries and that given the so-called natives in the colonies.

For instance, while there is public health legislation in Great Britain, this field is utterly neglected in the British colonies. Whatever steps are taken are intended to safeguard the health of the British colonizers working there. In India, to which Great Britain recently granted a fictitious independence, epidemics of the plague, cholera, smallpox and of other diseases continue to rage with undiminished force.

John Black Grant, director of the All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health in Calcutta, has cited the following figures revealing the low health standard of India's population: Out of 6,200,000 deaths in that country in 1939, 1,400,000 were caused by malaria, 48,100 by smallpox, 97,600 by cholera, and 260,300 by dys-

entery and diarrhea. In Calcutta, the death rate from tuberculosis was 270 per 100,000 of population as against 87 in London. In almost half the districts and three-fifths of the municipalities in British India the population lacks proper medical care.

Thirty per cent of the children in India suffer from hemeralopy as a result of an insufficiency of vitamin A and fats. The average life span of a Hindu is 26-27 years, whereas that of an Englishman is 63. Indian child mortality is exceptionally high, as, for that matter, is the general death rate. Neither protection of labour nor mother and child care exist in India.

Matters are not any better in "democratic" United States, where the death rate among Negroes from tuberculosis is more than triple that of whites. In 1945, for instance, the Negro death rate was 102.1 per 100,000 against only 32.7 for whites. The average life span of Negro males in the United States is 11.6 years less than that of whites, and 13.3 years less in the case of females. That is the measure of the "solicitude" of the ruling classes in the United States for the health of the toiling Negroes.

In our country, the development of the public health service is closely linked with the progress of science. No other country in the world has so many scientific research institutions in gen-

eral, and in the field of medicine in particular, as the U.S.S.R.

In capitalist countries scientific medicine is divorced from the people, from the working masses, from practical public health work. The governments there spend little money to develop science, except for the study of the atomic weapon or other instruments of destruction in preparation for aggressive wars. Scientists there work for private capitalists, to whom they sell their knowledge, discoveries and inventions, and whose political orders dictated by the profit-motive they carry out.

Only in the Soviet Union does medical science serve the interests of the working people, only here do all discoveries and inventions benefit the country as a whole.

## THE ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES IN TOWN AND COUNTRY

The development of the public health services during the years of the great Stalin five-year plan periods has been closely connected with the two principal factors in the building of Socialism: the industrialization of the country and the collectivization of its agriculture. From a backward agricultural country the U.S.S.R. has become a mighty industrial power with a large working class whose living standard is considerably above that of the proletariat in the capitalist countries. With the development of industry new industrial centres, new cities have been built.

The collectivization of agriculture put an end to kulak bondage and brought the kolkhoz peasantry well-being and culture. The extensive employment of up-to-date machinery has to a considerable extent converted farm labour into a variety of industrial labour. The U.S.S.R. is steadily eradicating the distinction between town and country. The fundamental changes that have

taken place in the Soviet Union during the years of the Stalin five-year plans have been a powerful factor in improving the health of both the urban and the rural population.

Direction of health protection work in towns is concentrated in the public health departments of the Executive Committees of the city Soviets of Working People's Deputies. Large cities are usually divided into districts, and each of these has its own public health department, which is subordinate to the city public health department. Each city district has its own polyclinics, dispensaries, clinics, hospitals, and so on.

In rural areas direction of the health services is concentrated in the departments of public health of the respective districts.

Now let us examine in somewhat greater detail the public health organization in towns and in rural areas.

## PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE IN TOWNS

In 1947 the peoples of the U.S.S.R. celebrated the 800th anniversary of the founding of Moscow, capital of the U.S.S.R., citadel of Leninism, political centre of the country, and heart of its culture, art and education. Of these eight centuries, only a little more than thirty years have fallen to Soviet times, but it is precisely during

this historically brief period that the most fundamental changes have taken place in the city's appearance. The Soviet people, led by the Bolshevik Party, have made Moscow one of the most up-to-date and beautiful cities in the world, a city possessing the finest subway, huge modern industrial plants and an exceedingly wide network of medical institutions engaged in the treatment and prevention of disease. The city's industries have grown twenty-one times over since 1913. In 1940 the output of Moscow's enterprises alone was practically double the total output of all the mills and factories in tsarist Russia in 1913. During these three decades the city made the equivalent of a century's progress, and launched out on a new life.

A characteristic feature of this progress is that the health protection system has not lagged behind the development of the capital's economy and industry.

The number of hospital beds, polyclinics and children's consultation centres in Moscow has grown considerably as compared with 1913, and the maternity home and other medical facilities have increased severalfold.

Before the revolution Moscow did not have such institutions as clinics, medical stations at plants, medical and hygienic departments at mills and factories, children's consultation centres

or milk-supply stations. Now a great many such institutions are in operation. They were created by the efforts of the working people themselves.

In 1913 old Moscow possessed only one scientific research institute in the field of medicine; in 1946 new Moscow could boast of 56, in which 3,800 scientific workers were employed. The Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R. alone operates 22 institutes in the capital.

Many of Moscow's medical institutions may serve as models of how the treatment of patients should be organized. The Botkin Hospital, which on the occasion of the city's 800th anniversary was awarded the Order of Lenin, the country's highest decoration, may be cited as an example. This institution is equipped with the best of everything medical science has achieved to date, and has a staff of some 2,700. Two hundred and seventy-three doctors and 900 nurses work in the hospital's 46 departments.

The hospital's staff includes six Honoured Scientists, about thirty Doctors of Medical Sciences and fifty Candidates of Medical Sciences.

*Dispensaries and Polyclinics.* The Soviet State has solved one of the most difficult problems connected with health protection, viz., the problem of caring for the sick outside the hospital network.

Non-hospitalized patients are ensured in the U.S.S.R. the free services of competent physi-

cians, including specialists in the various branches of medicine.

The few free dispensaries that existed before the revolution were each served by a physician or two, and these had no opportunity to improve their knowledge. The equipment of the dispensaries was very primitive, and their capacity was altogether inadequate to care for the medical needs of the many millions of Russia's population.

To combat disease, carry through preventive measures on a large scale, and discover seats of infection early, a great many more institutions other than hospitals were obviously required. Under the Soviets these institutions were established. The country placed the facilities of medical institutions at the disposal of all in need of medical care; doctors appeared in thousands of small towns and villages where the population had formerly been treated by a feldsher at the very best, and as often as not by quacks.

In the course of the passing years the equipment of these institutions serving the masses also was steadily increased. The dispensaries and polyclinics opened X-ray and physiotherapy departments and clinical and diagnostic laboratories where various analyses are made.

The dispensaries and polyclinics have in attendance general practitioners, surgeons, obste-

tricians and gynaecologists and dentists. District polyclinics also have neuropathologists, eye and ear specialists, doctors who specialize in tuberculosis, and so on.

Before the revolution, medical care was rendered at home in a negligible number of cases. The Soviet public health system has successfully solved this problem too. By 1941, the number of home visits made by physicians had increased 75-fold as compared with pre-revolutionary times. Now let us describe in greater detail how the polyclinics work.

The district polyclinic serves a specific area, which is subdivided into circuits. In charge of each circuit is a general practitioner, who sees patients at the polyclinic and makes home visits on call. The physician is assisted by the circuit nurse. He keeps a record of the entire adult population in his circuit, studies the state of health of those chronically ill, as, for instance, the tubercular and malarial, and keeps a special record of those who ail frequently. In this way the physician gradually gets to know the state of health of the population in his circuit.

The physician may make as much use of X-ray and laboratory facilities as he finds necessary for diagnosing a case; he may employ physiotherapy, or send a patient to a specialist, to a hospital or to a sanatorium or health resort. He

also arranges for the patient's home care with the help of the nurse.

The circuit doctor plays an important part in checking contagion. On discovering during a home visit a case of contagious disease he promptly arranges for the patient's quarantine, for the necessary disinfection, and the observation of all persons who have come in contact with the patient, or have been in his close proximity. The physician and nurse regularly explain to the population the importance of observing precautionary measures, they familiarize themselves with the living conditions of the people, and see to it that houses and apartments are kept in a sanitary condition. This constant though often inconspicuous prophylactic work carried on by the circuit doctor is of tremendous importance. In all these undertakings he is assisted by volunteers from among factory and office workers, housewives, students and members of the Red Cross Society. Directed by the physician and nurse, these see to it that yards and other public places as well as apartments are kept clean. If they find people ailing and running high temperatures they promptly inform the polyclinic, and in cases of illness not requiring hospitalization they take the patients under observation and see to it that the doctor's instructions are carried out. These volunteer workers

help the circuit physicians inspect homes, organize prophylactic inoculations, arrange talks and lectures on sanitation and hygiene, and disseminate popularly-written literature on medical subjects.

With the object of improving the treatment of patients the amalgamation of hospitals and polyclinics into single institutions under one management was recently begun. This enables physicians to keep their patients under observation both during the initial stages of their illness and while hospitalized.

Though it is still too early to discuss the concrete results of this reorganization, it is already obvious that it will help improve medical care further. Another advantage of this system is that the dispensary doctors, who previously were not connected with hospitals, now have an opportunity steadily to improve their qualification, which means better diagnosis and treatment.

Whereas before the revolution only nine of the larger cities in Russia had emergency aid stations, the U.S.S.R. on the eve of the Great Patriotic War counted 989 such stations and since the war's end their number has increased to 1,500. These stations are provided with adequate quarters, equipment, ambulances, and so on.

*The Fight Against Tuberculosis.* Certain diseases such as tuberculosis and venereal diseases,

require besides prolonged treatment also the enforcement of hygienic, preventive and social measures.

Despite the very high incidence of tuberculosis in tsarist Russia nothing was done to combat the disease. Halfhearted attempts to check its spread were made by the All-Russian League to Fight Tuberculosis, which was a philanthropic society. The rulers of old Russia were not worried by the fact that in the years 1913 to 1915, 40 persons out of every 10,000 died of tuberculosis annually. The entire country had only 43 poorly equipped dispensaries, maintained by the philanthropic society. Obviously they could not make any perceptible headway.

The Soviet government approached the problem differently. First of all, measures were taken radically to improve the working and living conditions of the working people. These measures are in effect today too. An extensive network of special clinics and sanatoriums, for treatment and prophylaxis, was established. The number of tuberculosis dispensaries increased from 1,000 on the eve of the war to more than 1,600 in 1948. The number of doctors specializing in the treatment of tuberculosis is steadily increasing.

The tuberculosis dispensary is not merely a medical institution in which out-patients are treated. Its functions include looking after the

patient in his home environment, advising him on how to live so as to regain his health as quickly as possible, and how to conduct himself so as to avoid infecting others. The dispensary takes an active part in helping to improve the patient's working conditions too.

This form of work better than anything else reflects the preventive character of the Soviet public health system, which underlies the activities of all our medical institutions.

Capitalist countries too have dispensaries. As a rule, however, their function is not to treat the sick but merely to give advice in hygiene and to discover seats of infection. For treatment the sick have to go to private practitioners.

A great deal in combating tuberculosis effectively depends on the timely discovery and early diagnosis of the disease and regular observation of the patients. It is this that is the principal function of tuberculosis dispensaries in the U.S.S.R., the number of which has greatly increased as compared with pre-revolutionary times.

The dispensaries have visiting nurses who look into the patients' homes and working conditions, serve as a constant link between the patients and the doctors treating them, and conduct hygiene education.

Treatment alone is not always enough in tuberculosis cases. Sometimes patients have to

change their mode of living for a certain time. A system of special sanatoriums has been established for this purpose.

Of particularly great importance in treating tubercular children are the day sanatoriums, and in treating adults, the night sanatoriums. The latter are available to factory and office workers who are predisposed to tuberculosis, convalescing after operations or serious illness, suffering from anaemia, etc. At the end of their day's work, these workers go directly to a night sanatorium, where they are given tasty and nourishing food and have their rest under proper sanitary and hygienic conditions.

Without wide public assistance the dispensaries would be unable to carry out their manifold and complicated tasks. In view of this, public councils have been set up at dispensaries to assist them in their work; these are composed of representatives of Party and public organizations and also of enterprises situated within the areas served by the dispensaries, and members of the Public Health Commissions of the local Soviets.

Under Soviet law tuberculars are entitled to be given suitable work. Accordingly, dispensaries together with factory administrations and trade union committees arrange courses for teaching them new trades, transfer them from night to day shifts whenever necessary, provide them with

working conditions that are more adapted to their state of health, and in case of need cooperate in transferring them to other jobs, improving home conditions, and so on.

All this has led to a sharp drop in the number of cases of tuberculosis.

*The Fight Against Venereal Disease.* The U.S.S.R. also has a network of venerealogical dispensaries, which are organized on the same principle as the tuberculosis clinics.

The tsarist government was powerless to reduce the incidence of venereal disease, which was very high. Far from complete statistical data presented in the Chief Medical Inspector's report for 1913 showed that there were 180.3 cases of syphilis per 10,000 inhabitants in cities and 53.7 in villages, 126.2 and 13.7 cases of gonorrhoea, respectively, etc.

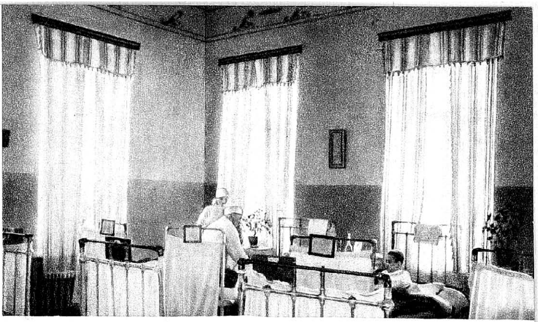
From its very inception, the People's Commissariat of Public Health proceeded most energetically to combat venereal disease. With this in view the Soviet Government adopted two important decisions, one providing for the compulsory examination and treatment of persons infected with venereal disease, and the other, for combating prostitution. These decisions played an important role in prevention of venereal disease. A considerable number of venerealogical clinics and stations was set up in the U.S.S.R., and

the number of venerealogical departments and consulting rooms in polyclinics and special beds in hospitals was greatly increased.

The determined measures taken according to plan by government bodies and medical institutions, the abolition of prostitution and unemployment, the rise in the well-being of the working people, and the timely treatment of patients—all this produced excellent results. By the beginning of the Great Patriotic War syphilis had been reduced to one-tenth and gonorrhoea to one-fifth of their former incidence.

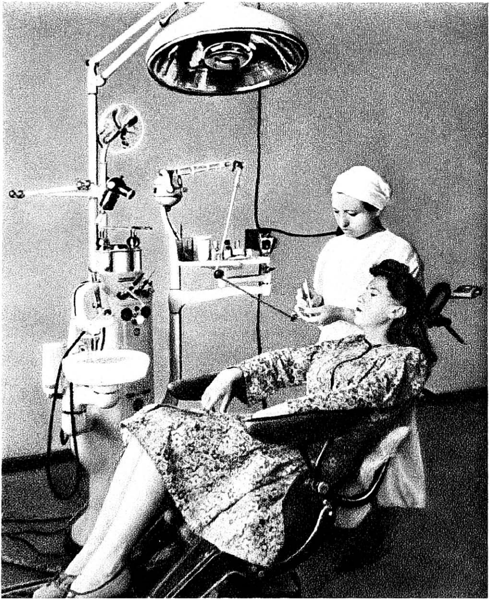
The barbaric invasion of our country by the German fascists, a large proportion of whom were already infected with venereal disease, resulted in an increase in the number of venereal cases in the areas that were temporarily occupied by the enemy. But prompt measures taken by the public health authorities after the enemy had been driven out enabled them to prevent the infection from spreading to the eastern regions of the country, and gradually to reduce the number of cases in the liberated areas. This painful aftermath of the invasion by Hitler's hordes, will, without doubt, be completely eradicated before long.

*The Fight Against Mental Disease.* The same social conditions that caused prostitution, venereal disease and tuberculosis, i.e., unemployment,



Men's ward at the village hospital in Avdeyevka, Stalino Region

Clinical diagnosis laboratory of the Kylasovsky rural medical circuit, Molotov Region



The personnel of the Gigant State Farm, Rostov Region, are given dental care on the spot

starvation and poverty, also gave rise to a considerable number of mental cases.

The Soviet government has spared neither pains nor means to combat this evil. It established hospitals and labour-therapy colonies and opened psychoneurological clinics, sanatoriums and special wards at general polyclinics. Far-famed psychiatric institutes are conducting comprehensive research, seeking and discovering new, effective methods for treating this disease. Needless to say, the "Ward No. 6" and its horrors, described by Anton Chekhov, and the notorious "Yellow Houses" have vanished forever. They do not exist in the U.S.S.R. In their place, serving the mentally sick, are comfortable medical institutions, where not even a trace of the dark past can be found.

For the sake of comparison, let us take data on the organization of psychiatric care in the United States.

According to official figures the increase in the number of mental cases in that country is catastrophic. "Each year," President Truman has stated, "there are 125,000 new mental cases admitted to institutions." The President, it seems, was mainly disturbed by the fact that the cost of caring for the mental cases amounted to about $500,000,000 a year.

The American magazine *Life* of May 6, 1946, carried an article by Albert Q. Maisel under the

intriguing title of "Bedlam 1946." The subtitle was: "Most U.S. Mental Hospitals Are a Shame and Disgrace." The author bases his conclusions on materials and documents covering approximately one-third of the patients in 20 states. Among the documents are scores of inquests into the deaths of inmates resulting from beatings inflicted by the personnel, and "hundreds of instances of abuse, falling just short of manslaughter." Everything that takes place in these hospitals, Maisel wrote, is "covered up by a tacit conspiracy of mutually protective silence and a code that ostracizes employees who 'sing too loud.'"

In the article are cited monstrous cases arousing indignation and bewilderment. Abuse and beatings are, as shown by *Life*, a common practice in state mental hospitals in the United States.

"In a single month in 1945," Maisel wrote about the Norwich, Conn., State Hospital, "26 patients in this hospital spent 6,552 hours in canvas lacings, mittens and sheets. Eighty others spent 13,900 hours in solitary seclusion!" In the hospital in Warren, Pa., the author stated, "there have been four physicians—one to every 640(!) patients. . . ." Beatings, underfeeding, wholesale use of physical and other "restraints," and incredible sanitary conditions account, in the opinion of the magazine, for the fact that the incidence of tuberculosis is 13 times as high in Amer-

ican mental institutions as in the country at large.

The result is that annually in the U.S.A. as a whole, for every 100 mental patients fewer than 12 are discharged as improved. Even of these, more than 40% have to be readmitted and reconfined.

*Medical Stations at Industrial Enterprises.* Besides the dispensaries, polyclinics and clinics, medical and sanitary institutions serving the workers at their place of work play an important role. The number of medical stations established at enterprises has been increasing with the growth of industry.

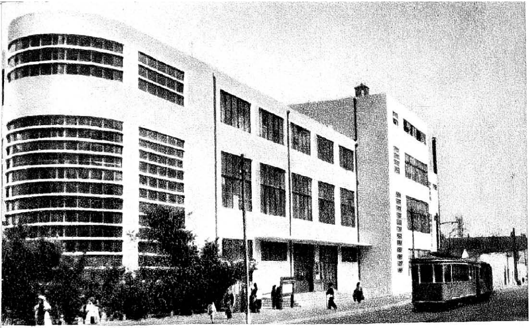
A factory medical station is a branch of the district or factory polyclinic or dispensary. Its main function is to administer first aid in accident cases and cases of sudden illness. The medical station has adequate equipment and instruments, and its personnel undergoes a special course of training.

The medical station personnel play an important part in preventing traumatism and in reducing sickness at mills and factories. To do this effectively they have to know how the workers live, and hence have to familiarize themselves with their working and living conditions. The physicians and nurses, therefore, regularly visit the shops, look into the sanitary and hygienic

conditions and the safety appliances, and see to it that the workers' lodgings, dining rooms and canteens are kept in a sanitary condition. Periodic examinations of workers employed in dangerous trades and of juveniles helps to detect illness in good time. The medical personnel, in addition, regularly show workers what to do and how to help themselves and others in case of need, while waiting for the doctor to come. The medical station doctor works in close contact with the factory administration, the factory trade union committee, the social insurance delegates and the safety engineers. In this way he is able to curtail the number of chronic cases, and to render timely and effective aid to tubercular, rheumatic and other patients.

Medical stations were inadequate to serve the workers properly at the new giant industrial plants. Hence in enterprises employing more than 5,000 workers dispensaries were established, and where the number exceeded 10,000, polyclinics. The factory dispensaries and polyclinics provide the workers and other employees of the enterprises every kind of medical services. They also make a thorough study of the plant's specific production features and carry out the necessary sanitary and prophylactic measures on a much larger scale than could be done by the medical stations.

Waiting room at the children's polyclinic, Frunze District, Moscow



Maternity hospital in Stalin District, Baku

Waiting room at Women's Consultation Centre No. 60,
Krasnaya Presnya District, Moscow

Medical care of workers reached a new stage with the opening of medical and sanitary departments at the larger enterprises of a number of the leading branches of industry. These departments unite all the therapeutic and sanitary-epidemiological institutions serving the enterprise.

The self-sacrificing labour of the thousands of experienced physicians, feldshers and nurses, who are working without stint, could not but yield remarkable results. The sick rate and the rate of industrial traumatism at plants are being reduced systematically throughout the country.

Only in our country, where protection of the health of the working people is the daily concern of the Soviet State and where all laws, beginning with the Stalin Constitution, protect the interests of the workers, does their health improve and their productivity of labour increase steadily.

Medical and health service is rendered the population of the U.S.S.R. not only by the institutions of the Ministry of Public Health but also by hospitals, polyclinics and sanatoriums belonging to the Ministries: of War, of the Navy, of Internal Affairs, and Railways. The trade unions too have their own rest homes and sanatoriums to help care for the health of the working people.

All of these organizations serving the personnel engaged in their respective fields function in

conformity with the plans of the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R.

The huge army of railway workers is served by hospitals, dispensaries, maternity homes and clinics belonging to the Railway Ministry, and medical districts have been established on all railway lines. At railway shops there are now hundreds of medical and first-aid stations. An extensive network of nurseries, consultation centres and milk-supply stations cater to the needs of railwaymen's children. During the Great Patriotic War the exceptional work done by the medical and sanitary institutions of the railways helped the country to a considerable degree to avoid epidemics and to keep the rear of the Soviet Army healthy.

In 1913, the entire railway system was served by 580 poorly-equipped dispensaries and 171 hospitals with a total of 5,839 beds. On the eve of the recent, Patriotic War, the railways' medical establishments counted 33,700 hospital and 7,700 maternity home beds, 611 medical stations at depots and shops with physicians in attendance and 220 with feldshers. This was exclusive of the hundreds of polyclinics and dispensaries where doctors specializing in all branches of medicine were available. In 1939, railway workers were served by a medical staff of more than 96,000, of whom about 10,000 were physicians.

In recent decades our country has built thousands of kilometres of new railway lines reaching far to the north and to the south and connecting the centre with the outlying regions.

Physicians and feldshers wearing railway uniforms coped meritoriously with their complex task of properly caring for the builders of these railways. At the builders' service were hospital cars and trains, bathhouses and laundries on wheels, and laboratory cars.

This is a far cry indeed from the way railways were built in pre-revolutionary Russia. Who has not read the wrathful, bitter lines written by N. A. Nekrasov, the famous Russian poet, about the endless sufferings of the Russian common man over whose bones the capitalists and tsarist rulers laid their railway tracks?

The Soviet physician brings his knowledge and his readiness self-sacrificingly to serve the people to ships plying the seas and rivers, to air fields from which hundreds of passenger and transport planes launch out on air lanes, to railway stations, to frontier posts where watchful sentinels vigilantly patrol the sacred Soviet frontiers, and to the regiments and divisions of the Armed Forces of the U.S.S.R. Wherever the Soviet citizen builds, labours and fights, alongside of him will be found the Soviet physician, feldsher or nurse.

In pre-revolutionary Russia only the largest cities had hospitals. In 35 per cent of the country's towns the population had no hospital service at all. The state of medical care in the city of Tambov in 1915, when it had a population of 73,000, was described as follows by Dr. Zhbankov:

"Medical care available to the population is confined to an examination of patients at the Nosov dispensary, where three city health officers are on duty. Home visits are not obligatory. The city has the following medical establishments: 1) the Gubernia Zemstvo hospital with 240 beds, and 2) the Red Cross dispensary."

Orenburg had only 2.7 hospital beds for every 1,000 inhabitants, and Barnaul, a town of 60,000, had but one hospital, with accommodation for 50, and two barracks for cases of communicable diseases, with 40 beds.

Hospital service was no better in other places. In 1913 there were on the average no more than 3.8 hospital beds per 1,000 urban residents over the entire territory of Russia.

The tremendous increase in the country's hospital facilities since the establishment of Soviet power may be seen from the fact that in 1940 Moscow Region alone had three times as many hospitals as all of tsarist Russia had in 1907. By

1948 the country had about 800,000 hospital beds. While in 1946, 9.9 beds were available for every 1,000 inhabitants in urban localities, by the end of the postwar five-year plan period the figure is to reach 10.4. This increase in the hospital network required a colossal money outlay by the state. Before the war it amounted to about 3,000 million rubles.

For comparison let us point to the fact that the richest capitalist country, the United States, had in 1945, 6,511 hospitals, of which 4,328, or 67 per cent, were not government-owned, but belonged to religious or charitable organizations, or were owned privately or by societies. All these hospitals charged for their services.

A special commission investigating the cost of medical care in the United States has found that patients pay about 80 per cent of all costs, of which 42 per cent goes to private practitioners. Notwithstanding the enormous need for hospitalization, nearly 50 per cent of the beds at private hospitals remain idle because people do not have the money to pay for hospital service.

As an illustration of the great progress made by our medical institutions the story of the Penza Regional Hospital, which celebrated its 100th anniversary in 1946, may be cited.

From 1846 to 1864 the Penza hospital was a peculiar combination of a poorhouse, hospital,

church, insane asylum and jail. After 1864 the hospital became one of the best among the zemstvo medical institutions, its staff including such well-known progressive physicians of the time as Doctors Vladimirov, Manuilov and Novikov. Since the Great October Socialist Revolution, however, its progress has been truly astounding. Its laboratory has developed into an independent bacteriological institute, and the obstetrical-gynaecological department has become a maternity home. During the Great Patriotic War what had been the hospital's small blood transfusion station, established in 1928, became one of the most important in the republic.

By its hundredth anniversary the hospital had become an outstanding institution with 430 beds and the latest equipment, rendering highly competent service of every description.

Many of our hospitals have a similar history.

As a rule, the hospitals are staffed by highly qualified doctors in the various branches of medicine. Their work is not confined to treating patients, but includes scientific research and pedagogic activity. Specialists attached to polyclinics, medical stations and dispensaries are regularly sent to work at hospitals for a certain length of time in order to enable them to improve their knowledge and gain new skill under the tutelage of experienced clinicians.

In the history of Soviet medicine the organization of public health services in the rural areas occupies a particularly significant place. Before the revolution, the cities had a few isolated medical institutions, even though they were beyond the reach of wide sections of the population. But in the villages the organization of medical care was very poor indeed. The zemstvo hospitals were so few and far between that they were like oases in a vast wilderness, and the small number of physicians that went "among the people" were unable to render the rural population medical care worthy of the name. The unsanitary conditions that prevailed in the villages, poverty and lack of culture were the cause of a host of diseases that not infrequently depopulated whole villages and even uyezds.

The tsarist government did nothing to improve the situation in the countryside. Indeed, it did not even strive to do so. The many epidemic and social diseases were a veritable scourge of peasant Russia.

While serving as a zemstvo physician before the 1905 revolution, A. I. Shingarev, a member of the State Duma, conducted an investigation into the health and economic conditions of the villages of Novo-Zhivotinnoye and Mokhovatka in the

uyezd of Voronezh covering a span of 25 years. His findings were an indictment of the tsarist government. A low birth rate and a high death rate, particularly among children, kept the population increase uncommonly low, and during 8 of the 25 years the death rate actually exceeded the birth rate. All kinds of diseases were widespread, among them tuberculosis, syphilis and trachoma. Shingarev came to the conclusion that the Russian villages were dying out. The main causes, in his opinion, were landlessness and the accompanying material insecurity, undernourishment, and the hazardous occupations the peasants were forced to take up. This is how a tsarist-day physician who was a mild liberal in politics described the situation that existed in the countryside.

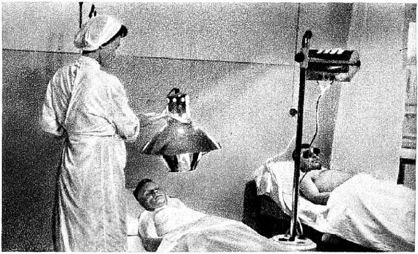
Shingarev's book told a sad but true story of all the villages in the uyezd of Voronezh, and, for that matter, of all peasant Russia plunged as it was into the direst of straits.

The proletarian revolution saved the "dying villages." It overthrew the decaying bourgeois-landlord regime, and it handed over to the Novo-Zhivotinnoye and Mokhovatka villagers the land which the Venevitinovs, the local landlords, had held before.

The kolkhoz system has completely changed the entire way of life in the villages. Today the

A room at the prophylactorium functioning at the Stalin Auto Plant, Moscow

The Kirov Institute of Balneology and Physiotherapy, Baku



A view of the physiotherapy department of the night prophylactorium at the Stalin Works, city of Molotov

children of the peasants Dr. Shingarev "pitied" in his day are served by Dr. Ziberov, who proudly tells us of the new life that has come to stay in the "Voronezh backwoods." He has calculated that at the present rate of increase the population in the area will double within 50 years. Instead of dying out, the villages are becoming more vigorous, new forces are maturing in them, and new people are growing up. The village of Fomino-Negachevka may serve as an illustration. In recent years it furnished the country several physicians and scores of teachers, agronomists and animal husbandry experts. And how tremendous are the changes that have taken place in the kolkhozes, in the entire system of kolkhoz life, in their everyday life!

On the initiative of Dr. Ziberov a hospital has been built and a pharmacy opened in that village. The work was done mainly by the villagers themselves. At the doctor's suggestion the construction of a power plant was started on the Nega, a local stream which empties into the Don River. Now the dam, 142 metres long, has been completed, and the hydroelectric station, built of stone, provides electric light for the hospital, pharmacy, two schools, the village Soviet, the kolkhoz offices, two dairy farms and scores of homes.

In 1944 tropical malaria, brought into the country by Italian soldiers of the invading fascist

armies, raged in the district. The doctor registered 313 cases among the kolkhozniks. The whole village cooperated in combating the disease. The sick were given every care, prophylactic measures affecting hundreds of local residents were taken, and the kolkhozniks thoroughly treated the small bodies of water where the mosquitoes bred. The results were soon evident—in 1946 there were only 30 malaria cases, and not a single new case was observed.

Soviet public health workers have played an important part in bringing enlightenment, prosperity and health to the countryside. In the Civil War years, typhus, smallpox, non-venereal syphilis, tuberculosis and malaria were widespread in the villages. To deal with these diseases a great many vaccination teams and groups to combat venereal disease were formed and malaria stations and points set up in rural areas. Tuberculosis clinics and stations were opened to fight this dread disease. The network of maternity homes and nurseries so badly needed by the peasant women was expanded.

Health measures were introduced on the widest scale during the period of agricultural reconstruction and kolkhoz development. A turning point in the work of the rural medical circuits was the year 1938, when the Soviet Government issued its historic decision "On Strengthening the

Rural Medical Circuit." Since then the rural system has grown particularly fast. Hospital service has been extended, and the number of village doctors has grown rapidly. At the same time the assistance rendered rural areas by urban medical workers has increased.

We shall cite a few figures by way of illustration.

Whereas in 1913 the rural areas had 49,087 hospital beds, in 1941 the village hospitals counted 169,900 beds, and in 1946, 197,984. By the end of the present five-year plan period these facilities are to be increased still further—to 50 per cent above 1946 and six times the pre-revolutionary figure.

In 1913, Russia had only 4,367 rural medical circuits. In 1941, the Soviet Union had 14,431, in 1948, more than 15,000, and in 1950, the number is to exceed 16,000.

Whereas before the Great Patriotic War our country had 34,511 medical stations attended by feldshers, obstetricians, or both (in 1913 there were only 4,455), besides many thousands of trachoma, venereal disease, malaria and other stations, the figure for 1948 was 49,300, and by the end of the five-year plan period it is to be above 50,000. This, in barest outline, is the picture of the numerical progress made in medical care in the rural areas.

*Rural Medical Circuits.* The medical institutions in the countryside have not only increased numerically during Soviet years, but they have reorganized their work in line with the specific features of farm work. To provide the kolkhozniks fuller and better service during the sowing and harvesting seasons, the medical circuits redistribute their personnel during these periods setting up extra stations closer to the field camps.

Along with rendering medical services at hospitals and dispensaries, the rural medical circuits guard against the spread of infectious diseases by giving inoculations and taking steps to stamp out sources of infection which they seek out and investigate.

The rural doctor and his assistants also attend to matters of sanitation in their circuits, concerning themselves primarily with inspecting and securing improvements in the water supply, housing construction and village amenities.

The feldsher and the combined feldsher and midwife stations form a part of the medical circuit and operate according to a single plan under the direction of a physician. At regular intervals the physician visits the feldsher stations to give advice, check up on their work and help eliminate defects, if any. The physician assigns a medical worker for each village whose duty it is to keep

a check on sanitary conditions and report promptly if any danger of epidemics appears.

In its extensive and many-sided work the personnel of the medical circuit keeps in close contact with the village community. The public health commissions of the executive committees of the district Soviets, health commissions of the village Soviets, and public sanitary inspectors take an active part in the work of the circuits. Health education is an important element of the general cultural and educational work conducted in the villages at reading rooms, clubs, schools, and so on.

Soviet physicians have become active exponents of the Communist Party's policy; they play their part in socialist construction in the countryside, in the struggle waged by the men and women of the kolkhozes for better harvests, for education and culture.

Here is what Dr. Sosedova, head of the Selitba rural medical circuit, Khvalynsk District, Saratov Region, told of her work when she took the floor at the All-Russian Public Health Conference held in 1943. Her circuit is situated some 25 kilometres from the district centre and 70 kilometres from the nearest railway. But that did not prevent her staff from properly organizing the general medical, sanitary and epidemiological, and administrative work. The small hospital, with

ten beds, and the dispensary are quite satisfactorily equipped.

"We serve kolkhoz members," said Dr. Sosedova, "and we know only too well how precious working hands are on the farms. We, therefore, bend our efforts primarily to reduce sickness and loss due to temporary disability as far as possible. I know every kolkhoz man and woman personally. I know where they work and what they do. This enables me, when necessary, to suggest temporary transfers to work which would not in the least be injurious to their health. Suppose a milkmaid develops a skin disease on her hands. She cannot be permitted to do milking, as the milk may become contaminated. But there is no reason why she should not cart grain or fuel. Or, let us say, a tractor driver has injured his hand and is unable to drive a tractor. But he can easily handle the job of field filling station attendant, or water carter. I have made it a rule to hospitalize everyone who runs a temperature. This helps to curtail sickness and reduce losses."

Dr. Sosedova next told how widely she enlisted the help of the community.

"We have 21 health agents," she continued. "They are all farm members whose job it is to record the work done by the field and tractor teams. They are competent people and are in

close touch with the population. They help us tremendously. Thanks to the extensive health measures there has not been a single case of diphtheria, scarlet fever, dysentery or typhus anywhere in our circuit in ten years. Neither have we malaria. Here is how we combated it. The very first year I began to work in the circuit I set up a card-index system covering every person suffering from malaria. All were assigned to my assistants for personal observation, and we started to treat them regularly with quinine. At the end of two years there was not a case of malaria in our circuit and there has been none since."

That is how the best rural doctors work. The close contact they maintain with the population ensures good results in the countryside. It is important to note that many specialists have been sent to kolkhoz villages: doctors specializing in treatment of internal diseases, surgeons, pediatricians, gynaecologists and obstetricians.

In its endeavour to perfect the medical service rendered the kolkhoz peasants, the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. steadily improves the technical equipment of the hospitals. By the end of 1950, every polyclinic or dispensary in the rural district centres is to have its own physiotherapy department and clinical diagnosis laboratory, and half of the districts in the U.S.S.R.

are to have X-ray departments, workshops making dentures, and medical libraries. The mighty growth of socialist industry ensures the realization of these plans, substantial as they are.

*Regional Hospitals.* Of great importance in rendering better specialized medical service to the kolkhozniks, as well as in improving the qualifications of physicians working in the countryside, are the regional hospitals. These are staffed by experienced specialists to whom the circuit physicians may send sick kolkhozniks for treatment, or for consultation, if they find it difficult to diagnose the cases themselves, or if they consider it necessary to prescribe treatment which cannot be given in the villages.

The regional hospitals periodically send their specialists to the rural circuits to examine the more serious cases, to act as consultants in surgical cases, and, when necessary, to perform operations themselves. Where emergency aid is required the regional doctors travel by plane.

*Volunteer Health Workers and Kolkhoz Nurses* At the very dawn of the Soviet system Lenin defined the principal function of the public health services in the Soviet Union as one of prevention. Everybody understands that it is easier to prevent disease than to cure it. Yet this object of public health protection can be achieved only if broad sections of the community, a wide body of volun-

teer health workers, are enlisted to aid the physician.

In addition to the state medical and health institutions, hospitals, polyclinics, dispensaries and medical stations, public sanitary groups have been instituted at residential blocks, schools, kolkhozes and enterprises, and their work is developing effectively. Volunteer workers with specialized training look after cleanliness at dormitories, clubs, yards, and so on.

When the Great Patriotic War began and thousands of doctors and nurses left for the front to join the Soviet Army, the role of the volunteer health workers became even more important. It was then that kolkhoz nurses made their debut in Aromashevo District, Omsk Region. The future nurses, chosen from among the more active girls who had finished seven-year school, went to special health courses where they were instructed by physicians of the rural medical circuits.

Experience has shown that there is much that a nurse can do in a kolkhoz. She is the first to discover that a person is running a temperature and she makes arrangements to send the patient to a hospital; she sees to it that the field camps, dairy farms and clubs are kept clean; she checks up on the work of the bathhouses and visits schools and nurseries.

Gradually other districts and regions began to follow the example set by Aromashevo District. The war has long been over, but the ranks of kolkhoz nurses keep growing. Nurses are now trained also by local Red Cross organizations together with doctors. The training programs have been drawn up, as has been a code defining their rights and duties.

The conferences of these active workers which were held in a number of regions in 1946 showed what a great force they had become. Suffice it to cite Kalinin Region as an example. In 1945-46, kolkhoz nurses in that region inspected sanitary conditions in 173,160 houses, took under observation about 3,000 wells, conducted several thousand talks on sanitation, and helped to give thousands of smallpox vaccinations and inoculations against gastro-intestinal ailments, typhus, etc.

It is no exaggeration to say that the appearance of kolkhoz nurses is a new expression of the Soviet people's active participation in providing healthy conditions for their life and work.

The circuit physicians, feldshers and nurses do not spare any effort to improve health conditions in the Soviet village. Most of them have gained the trust and affection of the Soviet peasantry, and have succeeded in building up efficient groups of volunteer health workers. The

latter help the personnel of the rural medical circuits to examine wells and reservoirs, to check up on the sanitary condition of yards, food shops and dining rooms, and to organize the cleaning up of yards and streets, and the planting of greenery in the villages. The rural medical personnel and the public sanitary inspectors have become true pioneers in the drive to make the villages healthful and comfortable.

During the fascists' barbaric invasion of the Ukraine, Byelorussia and the temporarily occupied districts of the R.S.F.S.R., thousands of flourishing villages, together with their hospitals, dispensaries and children's institutions, were burned down or sacked. But no sooner had the war ended than rehabilitation commenced. Villages have risen from the ashes, and schools and clubs have reappeared. Once again the kolkhoz peasantry are actively helping to build medical institutions, therapeutic as well as preventive, and working to ensure the regenerated villages a high health standard. Indicative in this respect is the strong movement initiated by the people of Zhitomir in the Ukraine and the revival of the celebrated movement started by the inhabitants of Rogachov.

Conferences of rural medical workers held in practically all the territories and regions have discussed the medical work being done among the

kolkhoz population and outlined plans for its further improvement. The personnel of the thousands of rural medical circuits are honourably carrying out their duty, devoting all their strength, experience and knowledge to help implement the historic decisions of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) adopted at its plenary session in February 1947 which set forth measures for the advancement of agriculture in the postwar period.

## PUBLIC HEALTH PROTECTION AND THE NATIONAL POLICY OF THE SOVIET STATE

On November 16, 1917, a few days after the establishment of Soviet government, the Declaration of Rights of the Peoples of Russia was published proclaiming the free development of the peoples of Russia and their complete equality to be the law of the land.

This policy ensured all the peoples inhabiting Russia, the national minorities included, full equality and the opportunity for free development in actual practice. Advancement of agriculture, successful industrial construction and the development of the national cultures created all the conditions that were needed for rapid improvement of the health of our country's numerous nationalities.

In tsarist Russia medical care of the so-called backward nationalities was altogether negligible. The territory which now comprises the Turkmen S.S.R., for instance, had in 1913 no more than 11 rural medical circuits and a few small hos-

pitals with 90 beds in all. The nomad population knew neither medicines nor doctors. The same year, Armenia had 12 such rural circuits, and its village hospitals possessed a total of 72 beds.

In almost all of northern Siberia, which was sparsely settled by small tribes, no medical care at all was available. The vast Yakut area counted a total of 11 doctors and 50 feldshers.

Medical institutions began to be set up according to plan in the districts inhabited by the various non-Russian nationalities only after the Great October Socialist Revolution.

The achievements registered in public health protection in the non-Russian republics are due to the fact that the health authorities have consistently and firmly adhered to the policy of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet State on the national question, which was set forth by Comrade Stalin at the Tenth Congress of the C.P.S.U.(B.) as follows:

"The national question takes a form requiring measures that would facilitate economic, political and cultural progress for the labouring masses of the backward nationalities, and that would enable them to catch up with Central—proletarian—Russia, which has gone on ahead."

The doctor's work in the national districts was at first beset with difficulties because of the general backwardness of the population, its low

standard of living and the powerful influence exercised by all kinds of quacks, such as shamans and lamas, and also because there were no native doctors or native junior medical personnel. The medical workers who came to Central Asia, or to the northern areas, found it difficult to gain the confidence of the inhabitants. At first no more than five to ten patients a day visited the medical circuits. It took months and years of persistent effort on the part of the medical personnel before the number began to increase gradually. And when not only men but women patients too began to come to the dispensaries the Soviet doctors could celebrate a genuine victory. As time went on, Soviet medicine overcame prejudice and supplanted quackery, and in this way made its contribution to the fundamental reconstruction of the life and customs of the formerly backward peoples.

The opening of new medical colleges was of tremendous importance for the development of the public health services in the Union and Autonomous republics. In Siberia, where there had been only one institution of higher learning, the University of Tomsk, medical institutes were established in Irkutsk, Omsk, Novosibirsk, Krasnoyarsk and Khabarovsk. Two medical institutes were founded in the Uzbek S.S.R., and one each in the Bashkir, Udmurt and Daghestan

Autonomous Republics and the Turkmen S.S.R. There was a rapid increase in the number of secondary medical schools training feldshers and nurses.

At the present time there is not a nationality in our country that does not have scores, if not hundreds, of medical workers who speak its language, know the life and customs of their patients, and ably carry on health education. The appearance of women doctors, women feldshers and midwives belonging to the various local nationalities in Central Asia has a particularly great political and cultural significance.

The wise Stalin national policy has ensured every one of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. free medical care at therapeutic and preventive institutions. In the formerly backward frontier areas there is no trace left of smallpox, cholera, the plague, and non-venereal syphilis. The number of typhus cases has declined to a small fraction of the former figure, and the incidence of trachoma, formerly the scourge of the peoples inhabiting the middle reaches of the Volga, Siberia and Central Asia, has been reduced greatly.

These achievements have greatly enhanced the prestige of the medical workers among the broad masses. It is not fortuitous that many physicians and scientists in the field of medicine are among those chosen by the people to represent them in

the Supreme Soviets of all the republics. Dr. L. M. Arkhangelskaya, a native of the Chuvash Autonomous Republic, who graduated from the Tomsk Medical Institute in Soviet times, has been elected to the Supreme Soviet of the Chuvash A.S.S.R. During the more than 22 years of her medical practice, Dr. Arkhangelskaya has saved the lives and eyesight of many Soviet citizens. Her fame as the "Doctor of Sight and Light" has spread far beyond the limits of Shumerlya District, where she works. Many similar cases could be cited. The people highly esteem and honour the foremost members of this humane profession who serve their great Homeland selflessly.

In 1913 malaria was widespread in the Caucasus, Transcaucasia in particular. The malaria stations and points set up under Soviet government, and primarily the many rural medical circuits, are successfully battling this insidious disease. They train local people specially for this work, which includes keeping a constant watch over the breeding places of the malaria mosquito, the carrier of the infection. The measures taken further to promote agriculture and improve the water supply in Transcaucasia and Central Asia serve at the same time to prevent malaria. The special tropical institutes established in practically all the Union republics are jointly engaged in solving this problem.

Tremendous progress has been made in advancing obstetrics and in mother and child care. It should be remembered that the public health authorities in the non-Russian republics encountered particularly great difficulties in this field. They had to combat not only the hold quacks, midwives without any training and priests had on the local people, but also age-old customs that had become deeply rooted among the women.

Since the inauguration of the Stalin five-year plans Soviet public health protection has developed extensively in the national republics and regions. By the outbreak of the Great Patriotic War the number of hospital beds in the villages of the Uzbek, Kazakh and Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republics had increased many times over as compared with 1913. The picture is the same in the autonomous regions of the R.S.F.S.R.

The rapid development of industry, the construction of numerous mills and mines, and the growth of the urban population in the Union and Autonomous republics stimulated equally rapid progress in the organization of medical services in the cities. Before the revolution, medical care outside of hospitals was also entirely unsatisfactory in the national areas. For instance, in the city of Tiflis, with a population of 300,000, the tsarist government opened only one hospital for "ambulatory patients" in 50 years. There were

only six doctors for making professional calls on the poor at their homes. Tashkent had two dispensaries for women of the local nationality and one for men. This was the situation in the larger centres. The smaller towns lacked even this inadequate medical service.

The Stalin five-year plans have completely changed the appearance of the formerly backward outlying regions of Russia. All of them now have a widespread system of curative and preventive institutions. In Azerbaijan, for instance, the number of hospital beds in 1913 was 1,000 in all, and there were only 30 dispensaries and polyclinics. By 1946 there were 11,479 hospital beds and 300 dispensaries and polyclinics. The growth of the medical network in Georgia is about the same. Hospital accommodation there increased from 1,835 beds in 1913 to 10,937 in 1946, and the number of dispensaries and polyclinics went up from 11 to 393 in the same period. Progress was similar in Armenia, Byelorussia, Turkmenia, Uzbekistan and other republics. In a number of Union republics—the Uzbek, Tajik and Turkmen—home visits by doctors were unknown before the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Thus, with the help of the Party and the Soviets, and with the participation of the people themselves, the Soviet public health workers solved

in practice the task set by Comrade Stalin: to "enable them to catch up with Central—proletarian—Russia, which has gone on ahead."

Although they differ from one another in language and customs, and are dissimilar as regards history, economy and culture, the many peoples of the Soviet Union form one united, closely-knit family which knows no national discord.

The huge army of medical workers is equally eager to care for the health of the Yakut hunter, the Uzbek cotton grower, the Georgian tea plantation worker and the Kazakh miner. The great Stalin Constitution has secured equal rights forever to all Soviet citizens irrespective of sex, religion or nationality.

## MOTHER AND CHILD CARE

The lot of women in pre-revolutionary Russia was exceptionally hard; there was no happiness in their life. They were everlastingly dogged by exhausting labour, poverty, oppression and joyless motherhood.

The following is how Pelageya Nilovna, wife of Mikhail Vlasov, the leading character in Maxim Gorky's novel "Mother," describes her lot:

"When I think of my own life—oh merciful Jesus! What did I live for? Work . . . beatings . . . never saw anyone but my husband . . . never knew anything but fear! Never noticed how Pavel grew up, and I don't even know whether I loved him or not while my husband was alive. All my thoughts and all my worries was about one thing —to stuff that brute of mine with good food, to do his pleasure without keeping him waiting, so's he shouldn't get angry and threaten to beat me—so's he'd take pity just for once! But I don't remember as he ever did. He used to beat me like it wasn't his wife he was beating but every-

body he had a grudge against. For twenty years I lived like that, and I don't even remember what it was like before I got married. When I try to think back, I go blind like, can't see anything....

"Looks like everything was licked out of me and my soul was all sealed up tight—deaf and blind...."

An employed woman's working day was longer than a man's, but her pay was less. Labour legislation did not cover the working conditions of women. A woman worker was not entitled to a leave even before confinement. So great was the fear of losing her job that expectant mothers stayed at work right up to the onset of travail, and it was not unusual for them to give birth in the factory, at the bench or in the washroom.

The despotism of the employers knew no bounds. Even after laws had been published prohibiting night work for women and juveniles, factory owners shamelessly evaded the laws.

In tsarist Russia mortality among women at childbirth was enormous. It was due to a considerable degree to the fact that 95 per cent of the women had no medical care whatever during confinement. Child mortality too was tremendous, being three or four times as high as in West-European countries.

Fewer than 7,000 beds in maternity homes, 550 places in permanent and 10,600 in seasonal

nurseries was all that pre-revolutionary Russia provided for its population of many millions. With the exception of the seasonal nurseries even these inadequate facilities were located mainly in towns.

Material insecurity forced the working people to send their young children to work in factories or run errands for merchants and kulaks. Work beyond their strength exhausted their still immature organisms. The few foundling homes that existed in those days were deservedly dubbed "Angel Factories," because the death rate in them ran as high as 82 and even 87 per cent.

The Great October Socialist Revolution fundamentally changed the lot of the working women in our country, giving them equal rights with men. The Soviet State fully safeguards the interests of the mother. This is set forth in the Stalin Constitution as follows:

"Women in the U.S.S.R. are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activity.

"The possibility of exercising these rights is ensured by women being accorded an equal right with men to work, payment for work, rest and leisure, social insurance and education, and by state protection of the interests of mother and child, state aid to mothers of large families and

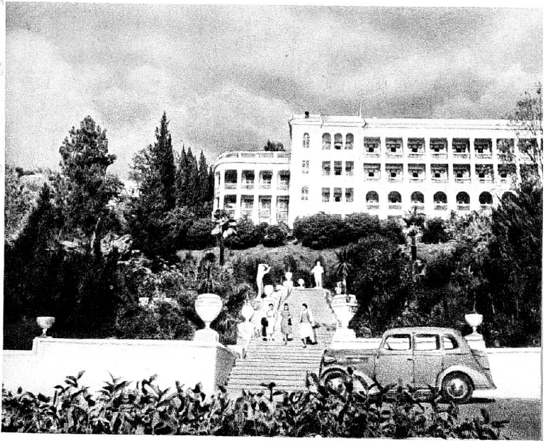
unmarried mothers, maternity leave with full pay, and the provision of a wide network of maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens."

Besides enjoying the rights granted to all citizens, women working in factories or offices enjoy a number of privileges. They are granted an extended leave with pay before and after confinement. After the birth of a child they receive a sum of money covering the cost of a layette. Also, they are entitled to extra time off from work every three and a half hours to nurse the baby.

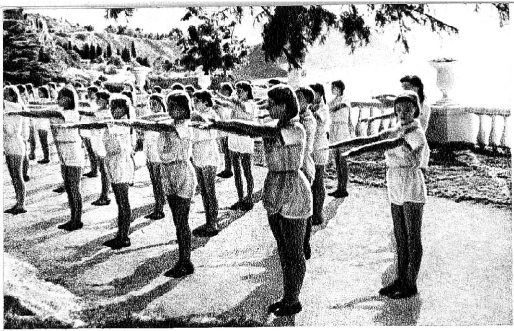
The Code of Labour Laws provides that beginning with the fifth month of pregnancy women workers and other employees may not, without their consent, be sent on business trips outside their domicile. The code also makes refusal to employ pregnant women or nursing mothers, or reducing their pay, a criminal offence.

Kolkhoz women too enjoy privileges. The Rules of the Agricultural Artel provide that they are to be granted a month's leave before and another month after confinement, with pay calculated on the basis of one-half the average monthly number of workday units earned. Nursing mothers are also entitled to take time off to feed their babies.

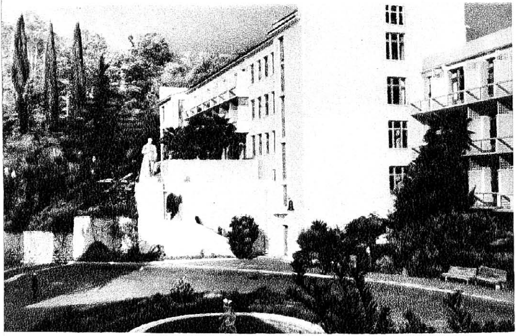
The Land of Soviets has from the very outset given special attention to mother and child care. In a decree issued in 1917 over the signature of



Sanatorium No. 1, Khosta, is one of the many under the jurisdiction of the Central Council of Trade Unions of the U.S.S.R.



Morning gymnastics at the Artek camp



The Stalin State Balneological Institute, Sochi

V. I. Lenin, one of many on this subject, the Government called upon the broad masses of the working people and the progressive intelligentsia to lend a hand in public health work:

"Workingwomen, citizens who toil, mothers, you whose hearts are so responsive; you, courageous builders of the new social order; you, high-minded educators, children's doctors and midwives—new Russia calls upon you all to devote your minds and hearts to the task of building up a new system for the social protection of the coming generations."

Thus, the special privileges granted mothers in the Soviet Union have been secured to them by legislation. "There is not a trace left in the Soviet republic of the laws that placed women in subjection," said Lenin on September 23, 1919, at the Fourth Moscow Conference of Workingwomen.

The decree of November 11, 1917, laid the foundation for mother and child care by the state. This care is ensured by an extensive network of special institutions and large government appropriations. An expectant mother in a city is under the care of the women's consultation centre in her district. There she receives medical attention before and after confinement, and also advice on hygiene. A consultation centre doctor keeps a check on whether the pregnancy is tak-

ing a normal course, and on the state of the mother's health after confinement. He may call in specialists in other fields for consultation, and if he finds it necessary to do so, he may certify the woman to be sent to a rest home or sanatorium. It is the consultation centre that sends the expectant mother to a maternity home.

If complications arise at any stage of pregnancy, the expectant mothers may go for treatment to special wards maintained for this purpose at maternity homes.

Finally, the women's consultation centres maintain legal aid departments whose duty it is to protect the rights of mothers should the need arise.

The number of maternity homes and of beds in them had grown to such an extent by the eve of the Great Patriotic War that all confinement cases in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Sverdlovsk, Gorky, Minsk, Kalinin, Kharkov and a number of other cities were ensured competent hospital care. In 1940, more than 80 per cent of all confinements in the cities of the Soviet Union and about 60 per cent in the rural areas took place in up-to-date maternity institutions.

Maternity care in the villages had also assumed a large scale. Particularly important in making it widely available was the opening of thousands of kolkhoz maternity homes with the population

taking an active part in their establishment. In many villages there are lying-in establishments maintained on funds allocated by kolkhozes. Midwives for the kolkhoz maternity homes are supplied by the public health authorities, as are medicines and other sickroom accessories.

Blood transfusions and physiotherapy are widely employed in maternity homes and in maternity wards at general hospitals.

The newly-born infants are kept in separate wards, and they are given anti-tuberculosis injections. Premature babies are ensured special care in incubator wards.

After confinement mother and child are taken under observation by the women's and children's consultation centres. A visiting nurse from an institution of the latter type teaches the mother proper child care, and assists the doctor who systematically watches the child's development. Milk kitchens have been opened which prepare various formula foods for feeding babies. The children's consultation centres also supply breast milk to infants in need of it. Orphaned children are brought up in children's homes at state expense.

The Dean of Canterbury, Dr. Hewlett Johnson, made the following entry in the visitors' book of Children's Home No. 1 in Moscow during a visit to that institution:

"With great pleasure have I visited this beautiful home for homeless children. It is a real home with particular love for particular children as well as a home grandly equipped in a scientific way for securing physical fitness. I rejoice that children of a common soldier get precisely the same care as the children of a commander. My religion always taught me this should be done. Here it is done. As Dean of Canterbury this inspires me deeply."

Children under four are brought up in nurseries. The mother brings the child to the nursery on her way to work, and picks it up on her way home after work. In the nurseries the children are under the constant observation of the medical staff, and are cared for by specially trained nurses. Feeble children are prescribed a special regimen and are kept under closer medical supervision; they are also provided with medical diets.

In recent years, around-the-clock nurseries have steadily come into favour. Here the children stay all week and are taken home by their mothers only for free days. These nurseries are an inestimable boon to unmarried and widowed mothers, women in poor health, those whose home conditions are not of the best, and so on.

Kolkhoz women have long since been aware of the importance of seasonal nurseries during

the busy field-work seasons. Before the revolution child mortality in the villages was particularly high in summertime. The establishment of seasonal summer nurseries brought the death rate sharply down. Since 1928, the number of these institutions which function during the sowing and harvesting seasons, has grown at an unprecedented rate. In many districts mobile nurseries are also set up in the fields for the summer.

Children of preschool age (from four to seven years of age), attend kindergartens, which, like nurseries, are set up at factories, mills, institutions or residential blocks.

Special polyclinics and children's departments at general polyclinics look after the children's health. Besides attending to the sick these institutions systematically check up on the condition of healthy children. From time to time they examine all children at schools and kindergartens. A number of children's polyclinics maintain day sanatoriums, which provide excellent conditions for schoolchildren in need of building up their health.

The network of specialized medical institutions and general and special sanatoriums maintained for children suffering from general debility, tuberculosis, rickets, etc., grows from year to year. Nurseries and kindergartens have places

in the country to which the children are taken every summer. Factories, mills, offices and higher schools maintain Young Pioneer camps and rent places in the country for their employees' children. Here, in the open air, under the salubrious rays of the sun, provided with plenty of good food and efficient medical supervision, the rising generation enjoys rest and recreation and acquires renewed strength.

The Soviet State's solicitude for the children is indeed boundless.

The network of child welfare institutions was considerably expanded already during the first ten years of Soviet power despite the severe hardships arising from the intervention, Civil War and devastation. In the years that followed their number grew extraordinarily rapidly.

One of the aftermaths of the German fascist barbarians' invasion was a decrease in the number of these institutions in the districts and regions that were overrun by the enemy. Now, however, their number is once more increasing rapidly, and will soon reach its former magnitude. Indeed, in the Soviet Union as a whole there now are more child welfare institutions than before the war.

Big figures do not always make as vivid an impression on the mind as does an illustration. Let us, therefore, have a look at Kiev Consul-

tation Centre No. 2, a typical centre of this kind, and pick at random the case history of one of the children cared for by that institution.

Little Yura was a premature baby. When a month old he weighed only two and a half kilograms. He had to be fed artificially, and he was puny and pitiful. In 11 months a consultation centre nurse or feldsher visited him at home 11 times, and a doctor six times. His mother took him to the centre for examination by a doctor 13 times. A nurse instructed his mother in proper feeding, diapering and general care. He was given massage, which was done by a feldsher or doctor, and also blood transfusions, quartz treatment and exercise. He received, in addition, breast milk from a special station and vitamins from the consultation centre. He was wrapped in mustard plasters and was given injections of physiological solutions. As a result, already at eight months, the child weighed nine and a half kilograms, which is the normal weight of a year-old child.

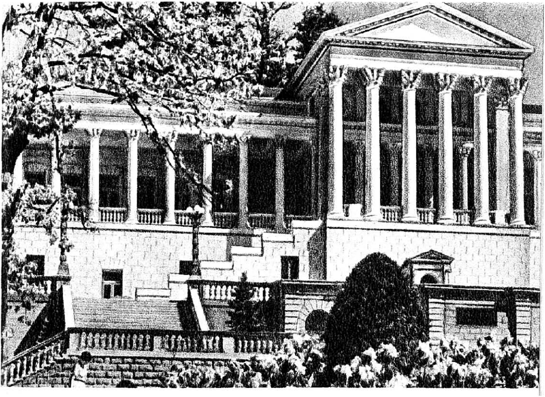
The Soviet system of medical care of children confronted medical science with new tasks and led to the organization of a large number of specialized pediatric institutions not only in the large centres, such as Moscow, Kiev, Leningrad and Tbilisi, but also in many other cities. Pre-revolutionary Russia did not have a single scien-

tific research institute for the study of the physiology and pathology of the child organism. Today the U.S.S.R. has 20 obstetrics and gynaecology, mother and child care and pediatric institutes. Pediatrics faculties have been established at 18 medical institutes. The number of pediatricians has practically doubled in the past five years.

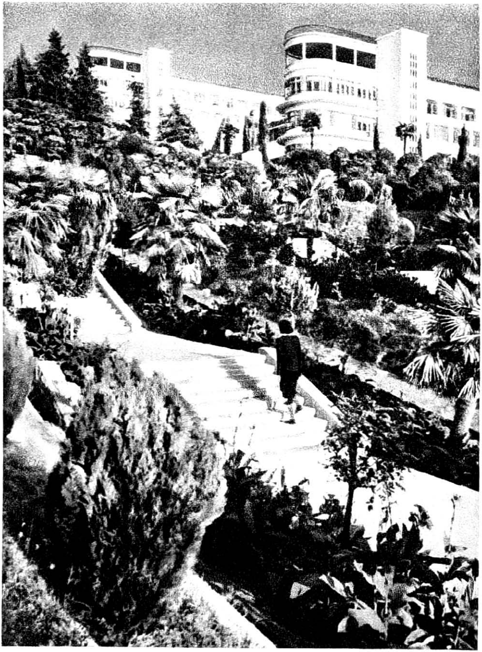
The country with the greatest generosity helps every mother to bring up her children, to rear a healthy, happy and sturdy generation.

Measures for mother and child care were extended still more by the decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. issued on July 8, 1944. The Soviet Government exalted the dignity and honour of the Soviet mother by creating the high title of Mother-Heroine and instituting the Order of Motherhood Glory and the Motherhood Medal. The title of Mother-Heroine has been conferred on 29,736 mothers of large families. Nearly 700,000 women have been decorated with the Order of Motherhood Glory, and more than 2,000,000 have received the Motherhood Medal. Yekaterina Nikiforovna Nazarova of Moscow, for instance, who has raised 11 children, has been awarded the title of Mother-Heroine and all three classes of the Order of Motherhood Glory.

State grants paid to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers in 1945 exceeded



The Orjonikidze Sanatorium in Sochi belongs to the Ministry of the Coal Industry



Voroshilov Sanatorium in Sochi

2,000,000,000 rubles; in 1946, the amount reached 4,000,000,000 rubles; in 1947 it was close to 6,000,000,000. The total paid out during the first five years since the decree was issued, that is, from July 8, 1944, to May 1, 1949, was 14,311,600,000 rubles.

Here are two vivid individual illustrations: Alexandra Ivanovna Yermakova, formerly a kolkhoz member and now a worker at the Mikoyan Meat Packing Plant in Moscow, who has been decorated with the Mother-Heroine Order, has received 53,500 rubles since publication of the decree. She has also been given an apartment with all conveniences. Lyudmila Vasilyevna Timonkina, a mother of 12, has received 63,400 rubles in state grants to help rear her children.

The decree provided also for a considerable increase in the number of children's medical and of maternity institutions. Only five years have passed since then, but already some 2,500 new children's and women's consultation centres and polyclinics have been opened. More maternity homes have also been built, increasing the accommodations by 50,000. Kolkhoz maternity homes increased by more than 2,000.

During the Great Patriotic War institutions of a new type—Mother and Child Homes—were opened in the U.S.S.R. These took in women with small children and pregnant women who had

lost their husbands in the war and were in difficult straits. Children who lost their parents were also taken in. Such homes provide lodgings, meals and medical care free of charge for periods up to six months.

Government appropriations for maintaining maternity institutions in 1948 were 70 per cent more than in 1940, and the sum assigned for curative and prophylactic medical care of children was more than double.

Our young generation is growing up healthy, joyous and happy. The tremendous attention devoted to children and mothers by the Bolshevik Party and personally by Comrade Stalin is an earnest of this.

## REST HOMES, SANATORIUMS AND HEALTH RESORTS

The right to rest and leisure recorded in the Stalin Constitution is ensured citizens of the Soviet Union not only by regulation of working hours and the granting of annual vacations with pay to workers and other employees, but also by affording them wide opportunities to make use of rest homes, sanatorium and health resort facilities.

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution only the rich could afford to go to sanatoriums and health resorts for treatment. Working people could not even dream of it.

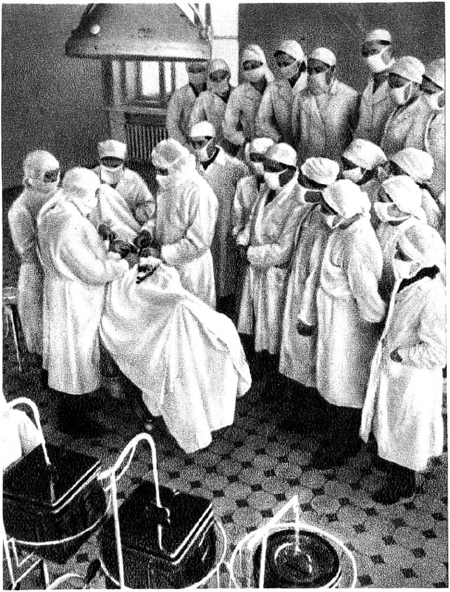
The Soviet Government declared the health resorts state property. Palaces of the tsar and the grand dukes and country estates of landlords and capitalists located in picturesque spots throughout the country—in the Crimea and the Caucasus, the central regions and the Far East—were converted into rest homes and sanatoriums and thrown open to all working people. In addi-

tion, wide-scale construction of new, splendidly equipped sanatorium and health resort buildings supplied with everything needed for effective treatment and rest cures has been carried out.

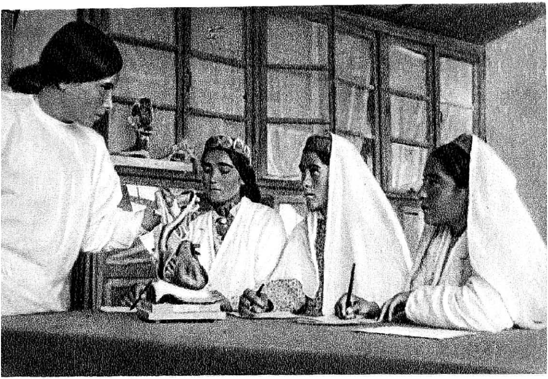
A comparison of sanatorium accommodations before the revolution and under Soviet power gives a clear idea of the development of sanatoriums and health resort facilities in the U.S.S.R. Whereas in 1913 sanatoriums in Russia could accommodate a total of only 2,000 persons, in 1939 the Soviet Union had 3,524 sanatoriums and other health resort institutions with accommodation for 422,535 persons at once. In 1939 alone more than 6,000,000 persons took treatment and rest cures in them.

Sanatoriums and rest homes suffered greatly at the hands of the German fascist invaders. The postwar five-year plan, however, provides for the complete rehabilitation of the health resorts of country-wide importance on the South coast of the Crimea and at the Caucasian mineral water springs, as well as for extensive construction of new sanatoriums. The resorts of Georgia, Sochi and the spas of the Caucasus have been completely rehabilitated, and those of the Crimea, Odessa, the Western regions of the Ukraine and the R.S.F.S.R. nearly so.

Along with resorts of country-wide importance



Students of the Novorossiisk Medical Institute attend an operation



During a class hour at courses for feldshers in Khorog,
the Pamirs

the number of local sanatoriums and health resorts is growing at a rapid rate. Over the vast territory of the U.S.S.R. scientists have found many springs and muds possessing curative properties, as well as places whose climate has a favourable effect on a number of diseases. With the help of local Soviets, kolkhozes and industrial enterprises, regional and territorial public health departments are building new rest homes and sanatoriums at these locations. The number of working people taking cures at health resorts has been growing from year to year. The Soviet State spends more than 2,000 million rubles annually on the treatment of patients at sanatoriums.

Besides providing good food and medical care, rest homes offer workers and other employees facilities for spending a pleasant vacation in cultural surroundings.

Sanatoriums catering to tubercular, neurotic, cardiac and other patients make use of mineral waters, mud baths and climate in their courses of treatment and employ the latest developments in medical science, for which purpose well-equipped departments and laboratories are set up.

Particular attention is devoted to the improvement of health resorts. New parks are planted and old ones improved, beaches are laid out,

and the most modern sanitation equipment is installed. The Soviet Government allocates huge funds for the development of the resorts.

The right of Soviet citizens to rest and leisure, a right consecrated by the great Stalin Constitution, rests on the firm foundation of the socialist system of national economy.

## PHYSICAL CULTURE AND SPORT

Exceptional importance is attached in the Soviet Union to physical culture and sport. The Party and the Government have, beginning with the very first years after the revolution, given special attention to physical culture as a factor playing a tremendous part in health-building and in rearing the new, socialist generation. A resolution of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) adopted in 1925 declares: "Physical culture must not be regarded only from the standpoint of physical education and health building, but as an aspect of the cultural, vocational and military training of the youth ... as a method of educating the masses, inasmuch as physical culture develops will power, habits of teamwork, perseverance, courage, and other valuable qualities. Physical culture must not be looked upon exclusively as physical exercise in the form of sport, gymnastics, outdoor games, etc. Its organic components are social and personal hygiene, vocational and domestic hygiene, and

it extensively makes use of the forces of nature and inculcates a sound regimen of work and rest."

Before the revolution there was no mass physical culture movement in Russia. Sport societies existed here and there, and their members usually were young people of well-to-do families. After the revolution a Central Administration was set up to take charge of universal military training, sport and training in preparation for service in the army (Vsevobuch), and on June 7, 1923, the statute of the All-Russian Council of Physical Culture was approved by the Presidium of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee. In 1931, standard tests for the Ready for Labour and Defence badge were instituted, the minimum requirements including a number of physical culture exercises. By 1934, two and a half million young men and women had passed these tests. The physical culture movement has developed extensively throughout the country—in cities and collective farms, in the army and navy, in schools and colleges. The number of its participants has gone up from thousands into millions. Each year on All-Union Physical Culture Day, hundreds of thousands of the finest athletes demonstrate their achievements. Physical culture and sport have become a truly popular movement in our country.

The movement is under constant medical supervision. In the Soviet Union the object of

physical culture is to promote the harmonious development of the human being, to develop and strengthen the body and also stamina, daring and self-control. The physical culture institutes in Moscow, Leningrad and the other cities study the effect of physical culture on the human organism, and prepare physicians and instructors to work in this field.

As a powerful body-building factor and as recreation after work, physical culture is essential for both manual and mental workers.

The characteristic features of the Soviet physical culture movement are its mass character, its sound scientific basis and the achievement of outstanding records, which naturally follow from systematic work to improve physical fitness, excellent training and sporting skill.

In capitalist countries, on the contrary, physical culture and sport as a rule are a commercial, money-making matter and as often as not athletes are played out completely in seeking to establish the records demanded of them regardless of the effect on their health.

Only in the Soviet Union could physical culture take its proper place in the upbringing of the young generations. It played an important role in the defence of our country during the Great Patriotic War. The Soviet fighting men proved to be the hardiest and physically the most fit.

## PHARMACEUTICS

Medical care and effective treatment of patients depend to a considerable extent on the supply of medicaments, and hence on the organization of pharmacies and industry producing drugs and chemicals.

Up until the Great October Socialist Revolution all pharmacies were private commercial enterprises, and the production of drugs was carried on primitively. Pharmacy owners were not interested in improving the drug supply but in increasing their profits.

Having abolished private ownership of the instruments and means of production and declared hospitals as well as factories and mills to be state property, the Council of People's Commissars, on December 28, 1918, decreed the nationalization of pharmacies. Since then their number has grown steadily, and the supply of medicaments and sickroom accessories to the public has improved from year to year. In addition, a wide system of pharmaceutical stations and stores,

booths and stalls selling articles of sanitation and hygiene has been established. By the end of the present five-year plan period every rural circuit hospital with 15 beds or more will have its own pharmacy, and the other circuits, and also the larger medical stations attended by feldshers will have their pharmaceutical stations.

Since there was no drug industry to speak of in the country, tsarist Russia was compelled to import more than half of its drugs. Of the more important preparations 98 per cent were imported. After the revolution industries producing medicaments and medical instruments were established—both of them new branches of industry for this country. Now that Soviet factories produce the most diverse drugs, from the simplest to the most complex, that are needed for the treatment or prevention of disease, the import of drugs has practically ceased.

Whereas the value of the total output of tsarist Russia's pharmaceutic factories in 1913 amounted to 20,000,000 rubles, the output of Soviet factories in 1940 reached 650,000,000 rubles.

There has been rapid improvement in the work of pharmacies. Leading Stakhanovite pharmaceutical chemists have suggested new methods for the preparation of medicaments which resulted in a marked increase in efficiency. The num-

ber of officinal medicines available on doctors' prescriptions has been growing steadily, and by the end of the present five-year plan period it is planned to have 75 per cent of all prescriptions in stock. The establishment of a large number of analytical-control laboratories and stations ensures a careful check on the quality of the medicaments, eliminating the possibility of error.

The pharmaceutical scientific research institutes that have been founded in the Soviet Union are busily engaged in studying new types of drugs and improving the methods of producing them.

During the war, pharmaceutical plants started production of the latest complex drugs such as the sulpha preparations, penicillin, and others. In the postwar period the Soviet medical industry has made new progress in the production of medicaments and instruments.

## MEDICAL PERSONNEL

Before the revolution there were in all of Russia 15 medical colleges, including departments at universities and higher courses for women. They were attended by 8,600 students, and their annual graduate contingent was 1,500 doctors. These institutions were not distributed uniformly over the country. In all of Siberia and the Far East there was only one, the medical department of the University of Tomsk. There were none at all in Central Asia or the Caucasus.

Already during the Civil War the Soviet Government began to establish institutions training doctors and junior medical personnel. The need for such personnel, on the one hand, and the youth's fervent striving for knowledge, on the other, were so great that within a few years after the revolution 16 new medical faculties or institutes were opened.

After the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U. (B.) at its plenary session held in November 1928 had adopted its resolution "On the Training of Per-

sonnel" and had turned over medical education to the People's Commissariat of Public Health, the number of medical educational establishments grew considerably. But the real efflorescence of higher medical education—improvement of instruction, construction of new buildings and provision of new teaching appliances to the schools —began after Comrade Stalin's historic speech at the Seventeenth Congress of the C.P.S.U.(B.) in which he pointed to the need to improve medical education.

At the present time there are in the U.S.S.R. over 80 medical colleges, where tens of thousands of young men and women study. Far from decreasing, the number of medical colleges increased during the Great Patriotic War as new ones were opened in several cities.

To enter a medical college a matriculation certificate is required. Candidates who pass the entrance examinations with the highest marks or who have received a gold or silver medal on graduation from secondary school are given precedence in admission.

All students at Soviet medical colleges or faculties, or, for that matter, at any institution of higher learning in the U.S.S.R., receive stipends, unless they make a poor showing in their studies. Out-of-town students are provided accommodation at dormitories.

Before 1945 a medical course took five years. That year it was lengthened to six years, which means doctors with still greater knowledge. Besides a solid theoretical grounding the student acquires adequate practical experience during the six years. What particularly contributes to the latter is that every student is assigned each year a definite program of work to be done at hospitals, clinics or medical stations under the guidance of experienced specialists.

Many of the larger institutes have pediatric and hygiene departments, in addition to those in curative medicine. In some cities special pediatric and hygiene institutes have been established.

The five-year plan for the development of public health services provides for an enormous increase in the number of physicians in the country. By 1950 there are to be twice as many as in 1946. This gives an idea of the magnitude of the task facing the medical institutes. No country but the U.S.S.R. could train tens of thousands of competent doctors in five years.

One may judge of the scale of medical education in the Soviet Union if only from the example of the Pavlov Medical Institute in Leningrad, which celebrated its fiftieth anniversary in 1947. Of the 12,378 doctors it trained in the course of those fifty years, about 10,000 graduated after the establishment of Soviet power.

In 1934 the degrees of Candidate of Sciences and Doctor of Sciences were instituted in the U.S.S.R. for all scientific workers with a full higher education who qualified for these honours. To get a degree in medicine a physician has to defend before the Scientific Council of an institute a dissertation showing his ability to carry on independent scientific work. Only Doctors of Sciences qualify for the title of professor, while docentships and assistantships are open only to Candidates of Sciences.

Already in 1946 the staffs of medical colleges included more than 2,000 Doctors and 4,500 Candidates of Sciences. The First Moscow Medical Institute, for instance, had more than 80 Doctors of Sciences and 200 Candidates of Sciences on staff in its 53 departments, and the Kiev Medical Institute had over 50 and about 150, respectively. Since then the number of medical college staff members possessing degrees and academic titles has grown considerably.

Carrying on the tradition founded by outstanding professors at Russian universities, the country's leading medical scientists are painstakingly training worthy successors from among the most gifted graduates of institutes.

It would be wrong to imagine that Soviet medical institutes are merely schools for turning out physicians. N. I. Pirogov, the great Russian

surgeon, said a long time ago: "Instruction alone, without scientific activity, is nothing but glitter, no matter how alluring the exterior." Every medical college is a major scientific institution which carries on profound research besides giving instruction. The Voronezh Medical Institute, a typical institution of its kind, may serve as an illustration. In 1945 its professors and instructors elaborated 127 scientific themes.

Combined effort is a characteristic feature of scientific research in institutions of higher learning, where each scientific problem is worked on by researchers of various specialties.

The gravitation of Soviet youth to science is so great that while still at college students manage to find time for independent research. All medical colleges have student scientific societies and scores of circles uniting the young devotees of science. Professors and instructors never forget the qualities demanded of young scientists as formulated by the great Russian physiologist I. P. Pavlov: consistency, reserve, patience, modesty and a passion for science.

In 1946 a contest was held in the R.S.F.S.R. for the best scientific papers submitted by students of medical institutes of that republic. The contest jury and the Ministry of Public Health of the R.S.F.S.R. found 31 papers of the 78 selected by commissions at the institutes worthy of publi-

cation in a special volume. Eleven were awarded prizes. During the first half of 1946, at the First Moscow Medical Institute over 200 papers were read by students at circles and some thirty at sessions of the scientific society. Many of these are of great scientific and practical importance.

The training of physicians is not confined within the four walls of the medical institute. The Soviet Union is the only country in the world where a state-sponsored system of advanced medical training has been established. This training system enables physicians to specialize in various branches of medicine such as general medicine, surgery, tuberculosis, etc., and specialists to improve their knowledge by keeping up with the latest developments in medical science and the newest methods of treatment.

There are now eleven advanced training institutes for medical practitioners in the country against one before the Great Socialist Revolution. The state annually allots considerable funds for this purpose, and it has issued several decrees making it the duty of public health authorities systematically to send urban and rural physicians to take courses at these institutes. The oldest institution of this kind in the country, located in Leningrad, which before the revolution had an attendance of about 300 a year in all, now has an annual attendance of 1,500 to 2,000. Over

40,000 doctors took courses at the Central Institute for Advanced Training of Medical Practitioners, located in Moscow, during the first eleven years of its existence, up to the outbreak of the Great Patriotic War. Besides these institutes, departments of regular medical institutes, regional and territorial hospitals and other specialized medical and scientific institutions also afford doctors facilities for improving their skills.

To train physicians for leading positions in the public health system special courses were opened in 1947 at the Central Institute for Advanced Training of Medical Practitioners. These courses are intended for physicians devoting themselves to the organizational side of their country's medical services and are taken by the higher public health officials of regions and cities. There are courses too for other groups of public health organizers.

Much attention is being paid in the Soviet Union to the training of intermediate medical personnel. The public health bodies have a considerable number of secondary medical schools, which are attended by tens of thousands of students.

Besides the secondary schools, which train feldshers and nurses, there are special schools for training dentists, dental mechanics and pharmacists.

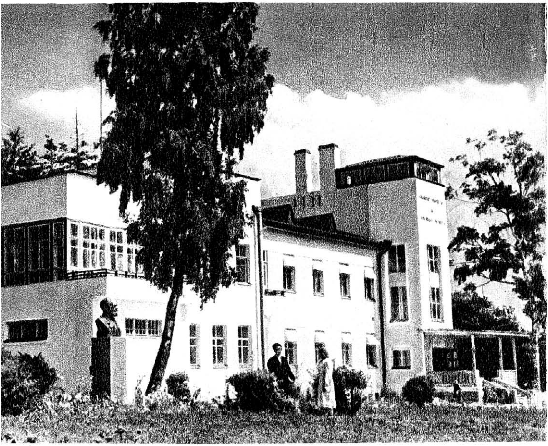
Intermediate medical workers ordinarily improve their qualification by attending special courses that are offered at the larger hospitals, where they also get the required practical training.

In Soviet times medical colleges have grown and consolidated, developing into genuine outposts of science. The physicians they train and educate are competent men and women unafraid of any difficulties and boundlessly devoted to their Homeland.

Since the establishment of the Soviet system not only has the number of physicians and other medical workers increased many times over, but their knowledge and skill have improved. The Soviet system has created a new type of physician, the civic-minded medical practitioner, a guardian of public health who has nothing in common with the physician of capitalist countries.

"We are no longer the Russians we were up to 1917, and our Russia is no longer the same," said Comrade Zhdanov in a speech he made in September 1946. To paraphrase him, Soviet medicine is not what medicine was in pre-revolutionary Russia, and the Soviet physician is not the physician we had in the past.

A glimpse of the All-Union Physical Culture Parade at Moscow's Dynamo Stadium in 1946



One of the buildings of the Pavlov Institute of Evolutionary Physiology and the Pathology of Higher Nervous Activity, Koltushi

## PUBLIC HEALTH PROTECTION DURING THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR

The Soviet people worked tirelessly throughout the Stalin five-year plan years to lay a firm foundation for the growth of socialist culture. Peaceful development, however, was interrupted by the German fascists' perfidious attack on our country. At the call of their great leader the entire Soviet people rose up to defend the Homeland against the enemy hordes.

"All our work must be immediately reorganized on a war footing, everything must be subordinated to the interests of the front and the task of organizing the rout of the enemy," Comrade Stalin said in his speech on July 3, 1941. "We must organize all-round assistance to the Red Army, ensure powerful reinforcements for its ranks, ensure the supply of everything it requires, organize the rapid transport of troops and military freight and extensive aid to the wounded."

And the Soviet people, led by the genius of Comrade Stalin, rose up in a great Patriotic War,

taking up arms to defend peace, freedom and civilization from the onslaught of the fascist barbarians.

Medical workers contributed much during the Great Patriotic War to the victory over the enemy. Thousands of physicians, feldshers and nurses traversed a heroic road in the ranks of the Soviet Army, fighting self-sacrificingly to preserve the health and life of every wounded man by giving him the best of care and attention. Those who remained in the rear spared no effort to help the front. They treated the wounded at evacuation hospitals, they served as medical officers in anti-aircraft groups in the war zones, and checked the spread of epidemics, which inevitably accompanied all wars in the past. Notwithstanding incredible difficulties, the physicians and their assistants set up an efficient medical service at defence plants and safeguarded the health of the families of the men at the front.

Comrade Stalin stressed that the Soviet Union finds itself in a hostile encirclement and that "the whole of our people must be kept in a state of mobilizational preparedness." Soviet medical workers regarded the leader's statement as an injunction, and always and everywhere they strove "to keep their powder dry." The war raged in the country's fields, on its vast expanses. To cope with the flood of wounded and to render

them proper aid trained personnel were required. This preparation for field service was conducted at all institutes for improving the qualifications of physicians and at medical colleges, at monthly, ten-day and all kinds of other courses.

It was the grim year of 1941. The battle front had reached the vicinity of Moscow. Their temporary successes had turned the fascists' heads and their hordes were straining forward, pressing back the Soviet Army units.

But already then, during the first and most difficult months of war, the Soviet Army medical service began to collect carefully, grain by grain, the invaluable experience gained in treating the wounded, experience gained right on the bloody battlefields, and to conduct scientific conferences, frequently at the very battle front.

It may be appropriate to recall for the sake of comparison that the first surgical conference of the world war of 1914-18 took place in 1917, two years and eight months after the outbreak of hostilities.

These conferences were an important school for the front-line doctors and the good they accomplished was exceedingly great. Attendance increased with every new conference, as did the range of problems discussed.

The conferences and congresses showed particularly vividly that our military doctors were

not treading the beaten path, that they were alive to the demands of the times and were introducing much that was new in their specialties, that they were speaking and finding the most effective methods of treating the wounded.

The Soviet Army medical service returned to active service, completely cured, over 70 per cent of the sick and wounded. To achieve such an outstanding record energy, knowledge and experience were not enough. The utmost creative effort, initiative and resourcefulness were required besides of the many thousands of medical workers. Doctors, feldshers, nurses, medical orderlies and stretcher-bearers all coped creditably with the tasks assigned to them, demonstrating their fervent patriotism.

Fulfilment of the wartime tasks was facilitated by the fact that the Soviet public health organization built up during the years of peaceful construction had reared a remarkable personnel and created splendid traditions.

The hospitals in the rear too required a considerable number of surgeon's, and to meet the need thousands of obstetricians and gynaecologists, pediatricians and anatomists entered hospitals and clinics at the country's call to acquire this new speciality essential for rendering competent aid to the wounded.

No small role in rendering aid to the wound-

ed was played by the working people themselves. Responding to the call of the Red Cross and Red Crescent societies, women workers, housewives, school and office girls took up nursing courses, set up first-aid posts and medical units in home-defence groups.

* * *

An immeasurable contribution to war medicine and to victory over the German fascist invaders was made by our scientists. Whether working at the front or in the rear, they devoted all their talent and all of their creative energy to the service of the Homeland. Soviet scientists were worthy representatives of that true science which, as Stalin has stated, "does not fence itself off from the people, and does not hold aloof from them, but is prepared to serve the people and to transmit to them all the achievements of science, and which serves the people not from compulsion, but voluntarily, willingly."

All the achievements of the scientific research that had been conducted so extensively during the prewar years at clinics, laboratories, colleges and universities and special institutes were made use of in the war. Scientists recommended new methods of treating wounds, new ways of combating shock, and novel operations. Worthy of

particular mention is the work of Professor Filatov, a Stalin Prize winner, in grafting skin and tissue. Of outstanding importance was the work of Academician N. N. Burdenko in neurosurgery, the new science he founded. In previous wars skull wounds were considered fatal. Thanks to the remarkable progress made by Soviet neurosurgery many men and officers fully recovered from head wounds and were able to return to active service.

Soviet scientists took the leading place in the world in the field of blood transfusion. They not only theoretically substantiated it as a method of treatment, but they also discovered new ways of preserving blood and found substitutes for it. Transfusion technique was greatly simplified and methods devised for the storage of preserved blood over periods several times greater than before.

Already before the Great Patriotic War a huge system of blood transfusion stations and posts on a scale unequaled anywhere in the world had been established in our country. These stations and posts kept registers of all blood donors in their territories. The world's first blood transfusion institute—the Central—was opened in Moscow in 1926, and in 1931 the establishment of institutes and stations was begun in the various republics, regions, territories and districts. This

organization served as a solid groundwork for meeting the army's blood transfusion requirements during the war. From the Central Institute and other institutions thousands of tons of blood selflessly donated for our fighters by workers in the rear, primarily by women, was transported to the front by rail, plane and motor truck. The donors included factory and office workers and intellectuals. The blood given by Soviet people saved the lives and health of hundreds of thousands of fighters at the front.

Scientific research institutes in the U.S.S.R. worked out methods for producing new preparations giving protection against several kinds of infections at once.

The achievements of the Soviet public health service at the front and in the rear were due not only to the knowledge possessed by physicians, nurses, feldshers and medical orderlies, but also to their self-sacrificing work. In recognition of this tens of thousands of them received high Government decorations. The following tribute to the work done by the Soviet medical profession during the Great Patriotic War was paid by Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin, then Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., when he presented the Sickle and Hammer Gold medal and the Order of Lenin to N. N. Burdenko, who had been awarded the title of Hero of

Socialist Labour: "This decoration signifies that the medical service of our Red Army stands on a par with the air and the artillery services, that medical workers are as necessary in the ranks of the army as are the fighting men and commanders.... The Government's efforts have not been in vain. It is due to these efforts that during the war, that is, when the country's resources were strained to the limit, our Soviet medicine proved to be on a high level."

It is hardly necessary to prove the first-rate importance of carefully collecting and studying the new elements that were introduced into medical science and practice during the Great Patriotic War. Not only we who live today but also the next generation are interested in the solution of this task.

With this in view, the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. has adopted a special decision on the scientific elaboration and generalization of the experience gained by Soviet medicine in the Great Patriotic War of 1941-45.

The Ministry of Public Health and the Chief Administration for War Medicine of the Armed Forces of the U.S.S.R. have enlisted for this work outstanding scientists, specialists and ordinary doctors who treated wounded or sick Soviet Army men and officers at the front or in the rear.

"The Experience of Soviet Medicine in the Great Patriotic War of 1941-45," which is to be a work of a great many volumes and is scheduled to appear within the next few years, will, without doubt, constitute an invaluable contribution to the treasure store of world medical science.

## THE POSTWAR FIVE-YEAR PLAN OF SOVIET PUBLIC HEALTH PROTECTION

As a result of the historic victories gained by the Soviet Army over Hitlerite Germany and imperialist Japan "the long-awaited peace has come for the peoples all over the world." (Stalin.)

The Soviet people, led by the Bolshevik Party, turned once more to peaceful construction and the healing of the deep wounds inflicted by the war.

The Hitlerites caused enormous damage to the public health system in the cities and districts they occupied for a time. The fascist invaders burned down hospitals and dispensaries, destroyed children's institutions and rural medical facilities. The fascist occupation had a disastrous effect on the state of health of thousands of Soviet citizens in the temporarily occupied areas.

It goes without saying that much strenuous work has had to be done by Soviet health workers to repair the ravages of the grim years of

war in the sphere of public health. They have had to apply themselves to raising within the briefest possible space of time the natural growth of population, improving the health of the working people, stamping out diseases that can be eradicated and reducing the incidence of others substantially, and to the maximum rehabilitation of disabled veterans of the Patriotic War.

All these tasks are encompassed in the five-year plan for the medical services, which is being fulfilled successfully. The Soviet people are not only restoring that which the fascist invaders destroyed, but also building anew on an immense scale. As regards medical institutions, their number already exceeds the prewar figure.

Before the war, hospital beds in the Soviet Union numbered 735,000, but by 1948 there were over 790,000. The number of dispensaries and polyclinics exceeds the prewar figure by more than 7,000. The system of maternity and children's institutions too has grown considerably. The number of both general practitioners and specialists has increased greatly, and the technical equipment and supplies of curative, preventive and scientific research institutions have been perfected. All this testifies to the advancement of public health protection in the U.S.S.R. to a still higher level in the postwar period. All-out effort to expand and improve medical care, to raise

the standard of curative treatment and prophylaxis as well as health work in general is now as always a characteristic feature of the activity of Soviet medical institutions.

Medical care in cities has for a long time included the services of specialists in the various branches of medicine. In the postwar years the public health authorities have been engaged in providing specialists for all the rural districts of the Soviet Union. With this in view, thousands of doctors have gone through courses at advanced training institutes for medical practitioners, medical institutes and other medical institutions, or are attending them.

One of the most important measures undertaken by the Soviet health authorities in the postwar period was the amalgamation of hospitals and polyclinics. Before this step a patient who was sent by a polyclinic to a hospital for treatment was no longer seen by the polyclinic doctor who first treated him. At the present time this is no longer the case, for the two services are now closely linked.

Convincing evidence of the postwar attainments in Soviet public health protection is afforded by the expansion and improvement of the medical services in the Ukraine, whose cities and villages suffered heavily at the hands of the fascist invaders.

In that Soviet Republic 800,000 collective farmers' homes, about 200,000 industrial buildings and 27,000 buildings of cultural and public service institutions have been restored or built anew since the end of the war.

At the present time, the rural hospital network in the Ukraine is 125 per cent and the urban 102 per cent of prewar. The number of physicians in the rural areas has gone up by nearly 50 per cent, and 1,200 doctors assigned to work in villages have completed special courses. Medical aid at confinement has increased considerably. Whereas in 1946, 82 per cent of the maternity cases in the countryside had medical attention, in 1947 the percentage was 86.1 and in 1948, 90.1.

These facts offer convincing testimony to the rapid advance registered in Soviet health protection.

The Soviet State has set up a widely ramified system of institutions safeguarding the health of the working people. The health authorities have at their disposal nearly 200,000 doctors and hundreds of thousands of intermediate and junior medical workers. Special attention is being given in the postwar period to the quality of training, specialization and improvement of the skills of medical personnel and to the quality of the work done at scientific research institutions. This has substantially enhanced the role of medical science.

The Soviet State has from its inception constantly promoted the progress of science in the country. Speaking in the Great Kremlin Palace at a reception given in honour of the delegates to the 15th International Physiological Congress, our great scientist I. P. Pavlov addressed the following words to his foreign colleagues: "You have heard and seen what an exceptionally favourable position science occupies in my country. I want to give just one illustration to indicate the relationships that exist between the state and science in our country: we, heads of scientific institutions, are frankly alarmed and troubled lest our accomplishments will be insufficient to justify all the resources which the Government places at our disposal."

Appropriations for scientific research, including research in the sphere of medicine, are increased from year to year. The Government sees to it that our research institutes get the latest equipment and that scientists are well provided for. And Soviet scientists, representatives of the new intelligentsia reared by Soviet society, devote all their energy and knowledge to the service of their Homeland.

In a report on America's scientific output which President Roosevelt submitted to Congress in June 1941, he stressed the close bond existing in the U.S.S.R. between science and the needs

and interests of the people. He stated that the main object of Soviet science was not higher profits but prosperity for the working people, and that the main, fundamental difference between scientific research in the Soviet Union and in other countries was not so much in its distinctive technical methods as in its complete integration with social life.

The great Lenin foresaw that only Socialism would liberate science from bourgeois fetters, from capitalist enslavement, and use it to make life easier and to increase the well-being of all the working people.

The successes achieved in fulfilment of the postwar five-year plan in the sphere of Soviet public health open up new vistas.

Although much has already been done, the constantly growing cultural requirements of the working people of the U.S.S.R. call for still greater exertion on the part of all medical workers to keep on improving the medical care of the population.

The Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R., founded in 1945, and the country's extensive system of institutes, clinics and hospitals are engaged in studying the causes of disease and in working out new curative methods. They are also studying the more important problems of sanitation and hygiene and of public food catering.

The accomplishments of our scientists provide the groundwork for solving the main tasks of the present five-year plan in the sphere of public health.

Great are the strides the Soviet medical profession has taken since the establishment of the Soviet system. Fostered by the Bolshevik Party and steeled in struggle for the freedom and independence of its Homeland, bound to the people by vital ties and ready to serve them selflessly, it has every right to take pride in the tremendous achievements in public health protection in the U.S.S.R. Through the efforts of the people and the labours of the medical workers, a new edifice has been raised on the ruins of the wretched pre-revolutionary medical network, the edifice of the Soviet public health service, which has no equal anywhere else in the world.

The Soviet Union's tremendous achievements in public health are vivid and cogent evidence of the Stalin solicitude for man. They testify to the indisputable superiority of the socialist system of society over the capitalist system.